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**ENLISTED WOMEN AT SEA:
A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS**

by

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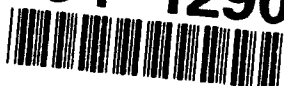
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<p>Repeal of the combat exclusion law allows increased opportunities for enlisted women in the United States Navy, resulting in increased concern for gender issues. This work identifies five gender issues and estimates future impact on fleet readiness.</p> <p>The history of women's opportunities onboard Navy ships is initially reviewed in order to determine the magnitude of projected expansions. Estimates of the percentage of Navy women who will be recruited in the future, distributions among</p> <p style="text-align: right;">(con't)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DTIC QUALITY INSPECTED 3</p>				
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occupational specialties, and trends in retention of women versus men determine the projected growth in women's presence. These estimates and previous studies are used to postulate future impacts of pregnancy, single parenthood, physiology, sexual harassment and fraternization.

Comparisons are made with integration of women into the United States Coast Guard, a seagoing service which has not been impeded by combat exclusion. The Persian Gulf War is used as a test case for the affects of gender issues in combat. Finally, three ship visits determine a broad brush view of senior operators' perspectives on gender issues.

Increased presence of women onboard Navy ships will not negatively impact fleet readiness. However, problem areas remain and can be improved through training, leadership and quality of life initiatives. Additional data should be collected and monitored in order to determine where changes in Navy policy are needed. In this way, enlisted men and women will have the opportunity to contribute equally to the United States Navy.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Purpose. Repeal of combat exclusion creates vast opportunities for increased presence of enlisted women onboard Navy ships. United States Navy leadership is now charged with determining which ships are opened, how many women are assigned to each ship, where women are distributed, and the process through which this change is implemented.

This study analyzes five gender issues; pregnancy, single parenthood, physiology, sexual harassment and fraternization in order to determine the impact of these issues on fleet readiness and the projected impact as enlisted women's opportunities increase. Results are intended as a tool for necessary planning and decision making for the present and in the future.

Approach. A synopsis of women's increasing shipboard opportunities provides perspective on the magnitude of future expansion. Possible increases in percentages of enlisted women, as well as their distribution among sea intensive and shore intensive ratings are projected. Statistics on retention provide insight as to whether rating choices or gender issues cause attrition. These projections are used to determine the future effects of gender issues and the probable impact on fleet readiness.

The United States Coast Guard serves as an example of a seagoing service which has not operated under the restrictions

imposed by combat exclusion. Comparisons of Navy versus Coast Guard results are provided. In addition, Persian Gulf War studies concerning gender issues are analyzed. Finally, three ship visits provide a broad brush view of the operators' perspectives on gender issues.

Findings. Presently, women are recruited with one-third to one-fourth the effort utilized to recruit men. U.S. Navy Recruiting Command data reflects that percentages of enlisted women could expand from today's 10.5% to 24.3% or more with additional recruiting effort. First term retention of women lags that of men by approximately 5%, with pregnancy as a major cause of losses. However, retention of women is higher than for men in subsequent enlistments. Selection of sea intensive versus shore intensive ratings did not appear to affect retention.

Annual pregnancy rates for Navy women are presently 13%, which is comparable to that of the civilian population and constitutes 1.4% of the enlisted force. Increases of women's percentages to 25% would increase that figure to 3.5% of the enlisted force. Onboard Navy ships, the pregnancy instruction prohibits pregnant women from working in "hazardous conditions." This can result in a woman's removal from her workcenter or even early transfer from the ship. In addition, pregnant women may not deploy with a ship and cannot be further than six hours from a medical facility if the ship gets underway. Women are removed from ships at 20 weeks

pregnant and returned to sea duty, often on a different platform, four months after birth. This results in nine month gaps in pregnant women's sea tours. In addition, a pregnant woman's billet is gapped for 11 weeks, on the average, when she is reassigned ashore.

Enlisted women are single parents at five times the rate of men. Presently, there are more male single parents than female, but increasing percentages of women to 25% would result in more female single parents than male and would increase the percentage of single parents overall from 4.1% to 6.2%. Single parents are given no preferential treatment in duty assignments. Lost time for parents is greater than for nonparents, but no data exists which reflects single parents lose more time than married parents. Single parent attrition is low.

Although a study conducted in 1987 reflected women's lack of physical strength in accomplishing shipboard emergency tasks, there have been no reported incidents in which women's lack of physical strength has interfered with the ability of a mixed gender ship to accomplish its mission. However, the 1994 amendment to Title 10 of U.S. Code provides the opportunity for the Navy to develop gender neutral standards if they are necessary.

The Navy's most recent sexual harassment survey reflects that more than 40% of enlisted women surveyed experienced sexual harassment in 1991. Much action has been taken to

reduce sexual harassment since that time, including top leadership's zero tolerance policy, focused training, a cookbook method for determining appropriate action and an advice line for policy clarification.

The Navy has recently established a sexual harassment database which demonstrates that the total number of personnel reporting sexual harassment was less than 0.1% of the total force in 1992, but that the number reported increased almost ten times since 1991. However, the newness of the reporting system may be the main cause of this tremendous increase. Data has not been collected for a long enough period to determine the effectiveness of the Navy's zero tolerance policy.

Data has not been collected in the area of fraternization. Resources reflect a perception that fraternization, which has always existed, has greatly increased with the presence of women. The 1991 Navy-wide Sexual Harassment survey included questions concerning fraternization, but the NPRDC report (published in December 1993) did not cite any specific findings based on that survey.

Opinions from ships visited are that the presence of women does not affect fleet readiness, but that gender issues remain an area of continuing concern. Staffs owning ships with mixed gender crews (e.g. logistics groups) appear better prepared to integrate additional ships than staffs (e.g. cruiser/destroyer squadrons) with no mixed gender ships.

Data from the Coast Guard was sparse but reflected that gender neutral recruiting and assignment did not result in greater accessions or greater retention. In addition, lack of combat exclusion in the Coast Guard did not result in fewer gender issue problems.

The Persian Gulf War involved few mixed gender ships and the only gender issue reports concerned nondeployability. Results demonstrated a lack of concrete data for drawing conclusions concerning the effects of pregnancy, single parenthood or other causes of nondeployability.

Conclusions. The gender issues addressed in this work will not negatively impact fleet readiness, even if the numbers of women increase to one quarter of the force. This indicates that women's opportunities should in no way be restricted due to gender issues. However, problem areas continue to exist.

Pregnancy will continue to cause women to struggle for acceptance as part of the Navy team. Restrictions placed on women onboard ships and their removal at the 20th week will have a continuing negative effect on continuity, teamwork, and the acceptance of women as equals.

Despite the large percentage of women who are single parents, increases in women's presence and subsequent increases in single parents should not be seen as detrimental to the Navy. Single parents, in most cases, appear to handle the balance between work and family as well as dual parents

do. However, single parents should be recognized as having special needs that Navy programs can accommodate.

Although there have been few reported cases, the ripple effect of sexual harassment is so far reaching that efforts toward elimination are necessary. I believe the Navy has developed effective programs for combatting sexual harassment and that, given time, the Navy's sexual harassment database will be a good measure of the Navy's success.

Fraternization is an important issue, particularly aboard ships, where close quarters and continuous contact exacerbate any problem which exists. No conclusions can be reached concerning elimination of fraternization because data which clearly measures it does not exist. Current Navy policies do not appear effective, as was the case for sexual harassment until after the 1991 Tailhook incident.

The foundation of improved integration of women is data collection and dissemination. Absence of data concerning fraternization and insufficient data from the Coast Guard and the Gulf War reflect deficiencies in effective data gathering.

Recommendations. Based on study results, the following recommendations are drawn:

- The Navy should not limit women's opportunities for shipboard duties because of gender issues.

- No special effort, but equal effort, should be applied in recruiting men and women.

-Women should continue to be encouraged to select nontraditional ratings in order to share seagoing responsibilities equally with their male counterparts.

-In order to compensate for their lack of experience, remedial technical training for women who score well in non-technical categories of the ASVAB should be increased.

-Family planning, sex education, and role modeling should be used to reduce shipboard pregnancies and pregnancies during first term enlistments.

-Shipboard pregnancy policy improvements should be developed by Commanding Officers, Executive Officers and Command Master Chiefs from mixed gender ships.

-The methods the Navy is using to combat sexual harassment should be used as a model for decreasing the incidence of fraternization.

-Not only surveys, but also statistical data should be gathered to determine trends of occurrence and the level of enforcement of the Navy's fraternization policy.

-Experienced personnel from mixed gender crews should facilitate ships integrating women for the first time.

-In all gender issue areas, data should be gathered and tracked in order to monitor issues, determine the need for policy change and realize results.

-Gender issue data should be consolidated at a single Navy source.

Gender issues cited in this report will not negatively impact fleet readiness, but can be improved through training, leadership and improvements in quality of life programs, which will benefit both men and women. With Navy leadership support, enlisted women have the opportunity not only for equal opportunity, but also for equal status in the United States Navy.

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To my children, Rebecca and Sarah, I offer my apologies, for my limited time and patience, and my thanks, for their unconditional love and limited demands. To my husband, Don, I give endless thanks for his consistent belief in me and unwavering support.

PREFACE

This work is a quantitative analysis of enlisted women at sea. Many studies used did not break out women at sea separately from all Navy women and therefore it is assumed that averages apply across the spectrum of possible duty assignments.

Enlisted women were addressed separately from officers for several reasons, most importantly because opportunities through the years have been markedly different for officers than for enlisted women. Enlisted women have been assigned to many seagoing ratings¹ prior to their opportunity for shipboard duties, while officers have been assigned to ships that do not have enlisted women onboard because of inadequate berthing arrangements for enlisted personnel. In addition, women in the military cannot be treated as a "homogeneous" group because officers and enlisted women's duties, responsibilities, lifestyles and life choices are, in many cases, significantly different.¹

In beginning this research, two offices were identified as primary sources of information. First, the Office of the Women's Policy Advisor for the Chief of Naval Personnel (OP-00W), a full time (rather than collateral) position since 1988, which is responsible for monitoring women's policies.

¹e.g. Radioman, yeoman, personnelman, etc.--these are all present onboard ships as well as ashore

This office provides the liaison to the Defense Advisory Council on Women in the Service (DACOWITS) on Navy women's issues.

Second, the Standing Committee on Military and Civilian Women in the Department of the Navy, which was established by the Secretary of the Navy in July 1992, as a result of incidents occurring during the Tailhook convention in September 1991. Its purpose is to "recommend measures to ensure the optimal integration of women and effective utilization of their professional capabilities."² This committee is chaired by the Assistant Secretary of the Navy for Manpower and Reserve Affairs, and the senior Navy representative is the Vice Chief of Naval Operations. The administrative staff for this committee is headed by a Navy Captain. The scope of the standing committee is much broader than that of OP-00W because it includes civilian women and the Marine Corps. The objectives of each are, however, similar. OP-00W carries out much of the tasking for the standing committee, but operates independently. Unfortunately, neither office maintains data on gender issues, but instead referred me to other sources.

The majority of studies gathered were from the Navy Personnel Research and Development Center (NPRDC), General Accounting Office (GAO), Center for Naval Analyses (CNA), Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC), the 1990 Navy Women's Study Group Report and the Report of the Presidential

Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces. Some studies were based on statistics but many studies were based on surveys given to sample populations. Surveys require voluntary compliance, measure individual opinions which may be effected by circumstances or emotions and, in some cases, numerical representation of remembered occurrences, making results questionable. Where possible, I have attempted to avoid using surveys to create conclusions, but only to further support conclusions that are based on statistical data.

Often studies used for this work addressed impact on fleet or combat readiness without defining what that term means, making conclusions ambiguous, which this study attempts to avoid. In determining whether there is a significant impact on fleet readiness, five percent of the Naval force was selected as the point at which an issue's impact would be considered significant.

This work intends to clear up misperceptions, and to provide the Navy with a starting point for continuous tracking of critical issues into the future. In this way, we can be certain that we are heading in the right direction and achieving positive results.

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**ENLISTED WOMEN AT SEA:
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview. On November 10, 1993, President Clinton signed the Fiscal Year 1994 National Defense Authorization Act¹. Section 541 of that act repealed the combat exclusion law for women in the Navy and Marine Corps. This historic decision is not only revolutionary for women in the Navy, but is also a vital step in the evolutionary process toward equal opportunity and equal status for female sailors.

Recent events, including the Gulf War and the Tailhook debacle, have reflected both positively and negatively on areas which concern women in the services. Embarkation of women onboard combatant ships provides virtually unlimited opportunities not only for expanded roles and increasing numbers, but also for increased difficulties due to unresolved issues. It is critical that facts, rather than perceptions, drive policy changes and the process through which women's opportunities are expanded. Legal change is a critical part, but only a part, of providing equal opportunity to both men and women in the Navy. Study and analysis of areas which may impact fleet readiness is also required.

This work will provide available facts on areas which have become labeled "gender issues." The focus will be enlisted women onboard U.S. Navy ships. This study will show that gender issues do not impact fleet readiness per se, but should be quantified in the future as opportunities for women continue to expand and policies concerning these issues are revised, in order to ensure that positive change occurs.

Progress of Women's Shipboard Opportunities. In 1948, Congress passed the Women's Armed Services Integration Act (Public Law 80-625) which established a permanent place for women in the military services. Its purpose was twofold; to provide an easy way to mobilize women in the event of war and to ensure that women would not be involved in combat. This act specifically stated that women would not be assigned "to duty on vessels of the Navy except hospital ships and naval transports."² It also put a limit of two percent on levels of enlisted women. This law would remain in effect in its entirety for the next two decades.

During the Korean War (1950-1953), the number of women volunteering to join the armed services fell drastically from that of previous wars. As a result, the Secretary of Defense, George Marshall, established the Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (DACOWITS) in 1951 which exists today as

²Gender issues are defined in this study as issues which are considered more significant, and in this case detrimental, due to women's presence in the Navy.

an advocate for women in the military. Since its inception, this civilian board has been a driving force toward increased opportunities for women (including combat exclusion repeal) and improvements in many areas of concern for women.

During the 1960's, President Kennedy expanded the military to meet the challenge of communist aggression. Women's presence, however, declined throughout the armed services during this period.³ The President, in support of his promise to use the talents of women in the workforce, established the Commission on the Status of Women in December 1961. Despite the establishment of this commission, however, no Navy enlisted women served in Vietnam.⁴

Due to declining interest in military service during the Vietnam War, Public Law 90-130 was enacted in 1967 at the request of the Department of Defense.⁵ This law removed the limits on enlisted women's percentages,⁶ but Navy women were still barred from combatant ships by U.S. Code, Title 10, Section 6015. In fact, it was made clear, by both the Department of Defense (DOD) and the House Armed Services Committee, that restrictions on the role of women in the military was not to change; that "there cannot be complete equality between men and women in the matter of military careers."⁶

³Women at that time made up approximately one percent of the military and the services believed that even the previous two percent ceiling would never be reached. The All Volunteer Force drastically changed those perceptions.

In 1972, 32 non-medical enlisted women reported aboard the hospital ship, USS SANCTUARY. This was a pilot program initiated by then Chief of Naval Operations, Admiral Elmo Zumwalt. Though the program was deemed successful, SANCTUARY was decommissioned in 1975 without transfer of the women to other Navy ships.⁷

In 1973, President Nixon ended the draft and the All Volunteer Force (AVF) began. Percentages of women began to rise. In 1976, four enlisted women filed suit against the Navy and the Department of Defense (DOD), claiming that exclusion from combatant vessels was unconstitutional. Their suit cited discrimination against 21,870 Navy women in not allowing them the opportunity to serve aboard ships. District Judge John J. Sirica ruled the statute unconstitutional on July 27, 1978. This resulted in Congress amending Title 10 to allow women to be assigned to noncombatant vessels and also temporarily to combatant vessels. The statute now read:

women may not be assigned to duty on vessels or in aircraft that are engaged in combat missions nor may they be assigned to other than temporary duty on vessels of the Navy except hospital ships, transports and vessels of a similar classification not expected to be assigned combat missions.⁸

Subsequently, women were assigned to destroyer tenders (AD), submarine tenders (AS) and repair ships (AR). Four ships and 396 women began the "Women in Ships Program."⁹ The

⁷up to six months

number of women onboard ships rose. From that first year, numbers have risen to more than 9000 prior to the military's drawdown. Opportunities have also expanded. In 1987, three types of combat logistics force ships were made available to women¹⁰ and in 1989, Master Chief Janice Ayers became the first female Command Master Chief afloat. In 1990, the Navy launched the new FFT (training frigates) program to which women were assigned.* These expanded opportunities enhanced the desire of women for assignment aboard the "elite" ships of the Navy, combatants.

Following the incidence of sexual harassment and sexual assault which occurred at the Tailhook Convention in September 1991, the fiscal year 1992 National Defense Authorization Act amended Title 10 to repeal the exclusion of women onboard aircraft engaged in combat missions and established the Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces. This commission was chartered to "assess the laws and policies restricting the assignment of female service members" and make recommendations to the President by November 15, 1992.¹¹

In April 1993, as a result of the commission's report, DOD authorized women duty in combatant aircraft and began working toward allowing women onboard combatant ships.¹² Finally, on November 10, 1993, the combat exclusion law was

*The FFT program has been discontinued due to budget cutbacks with the resultant decommissioning of the Navy's eight FFT's.

repealed by the Fiscal Year 1994 National Defense Authorization Act, providing the opportunity for women to serve onboard the remainder of the Navy's more than 400 ships. Appendix I tabulates the expansion of women's shipboard opportunities since 1978, reflecting the significant increase in available platforms due to combat exclusion repeal.

Gradual transitions to mixed gender crews are planned rather than rapid integration of women due to presently inadequate berthing and living accommodations for women. However, women are presently scheduled to report to at least eight combatant ships, including two aircraft carriers, in 1994.^{*13} Necessary refits are scheduled to coincide with regular overhaul schedules in order to minimize costs.

Additional reasons exist to proceed slowly. Various issues of longstanding for women in the Navy remain. These issues, some predict, will impact fleet readiness and cannot be ignored. It is in the Navy's best interest that gender issues not be ignored in hopes that combat exclusion repeal will solve them. Perceptions must not be ignored, but should be replaced by facts prior to women reporting aboard.

With the repeal of combat exclusion, there is finally a possibility for equal opportunity, equal status for men and women in the Navy. However, gender issues must first be identified and quantified in order for plans and policies to

^{*Navy policy, not statute, still excludes women from service onboard submarines.}

support that goal. The first step is to quantify how many women (what percentage of the force) are expected in the future.

Chapter II

Female Enlisted Population Projections

Accessions. Enlisted women presently constitute 10.5% of the Navy's enlisted force.¹ During 1993, fiscal year 1994 goals for women's accessions rose from 13.2% to 15%.² Previously, percentages of women accessed were determined by the available billets for women, which were restricted by limits on seagoing platforms and the need for equitable sea/shore rotation. If too many women were present, shore establishments would be filled with women who could not rotate to sea billets.

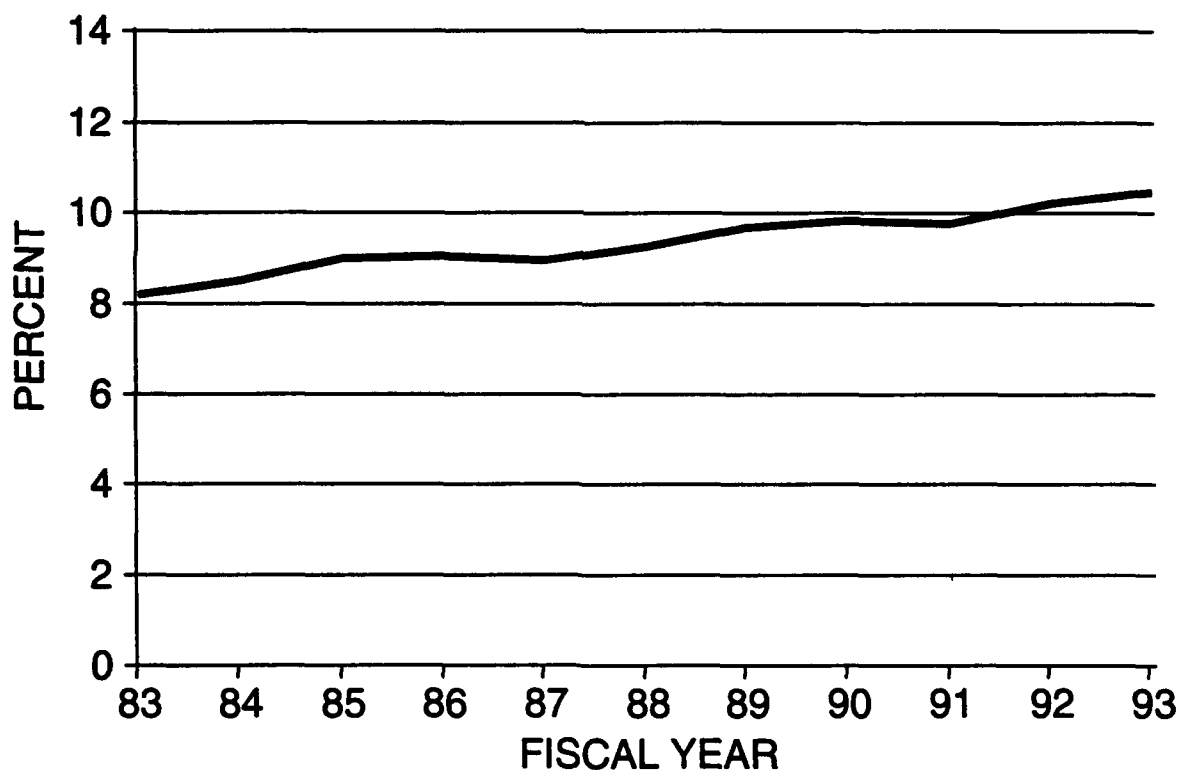
The rise in accessions is possible because of expanding shipboard opportunities, and is supported because of increasing difficulty recruiting men. Presently, women are recruited with one-third to one-fourth the effort required to recruit high quality men.³ Therefore, with shrinking budgets and fewer personnel in the workforce, Naval Recruiting Command is making this cost effective choice.

Today, with combatant ships opening to women, vast opportunities are being made available to women and it is possible the number of women could equal or exceed the number of men in the Navy. Issues which specifically effect women, such as pregnancy, would correspondingly grow. Therefore it is necessary, if the future impact of gender issues is to be measured, to estimate the likely increases, if any, in percentages of women.

There are many who believe women have had ample opportunity for growth in numbers up to now and consequently, combat exclusion repeal will have no effect on percentages of women. However, as the Navy is drawing down, the percentages of Navy women are increasing (see figure II-1) and certainly could continue to rise if the Navy chose. In addition, Navy

FIGURE II-1

WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF ENLISTED END STRENGTH



Source: Facsimile from Defense Manpower Data Center, Monterey, Ca., 7 February 1994.

Recruiting Command has employed studies, called Youth Attitude Tracking Studies (YATS), which assess the availability and likelihood of high school students to join the military and reflect that a higher percentage of women are propensed¹ than are recruited.

In 1992, women constituted approximately 30% of all students who intend to enlist.⁴ However, women's ASVAB² scores, although higher on the average overall than their male counterparts, are lower in areas³ required for certain technical ratings.⁵ This information, combined with the percentage of those propensed, reduces the recruiting pool of qualified women (see figure II-2). It should be kept in mind that low test scores can reflect inexperience rather than inability, such that remedial training for women who score well in all other areas could compensate for this possibly "cultural" deficiency.

Table II-1 reflects that the Navy only recruits 10.3% of those women who intend to enlist compared to 28.4% of propensed males.⁶ All figures presented indicate that women could represent from 10.5% (1993 levels) to approximately 30% of the total force annually accessed, depending on recruiting efforts and Navy policy (see figure II-3). More definitive

¹positive intentions to enlist.

²Armed Service Vocational Aptitude Battery-administered to all new recruits.

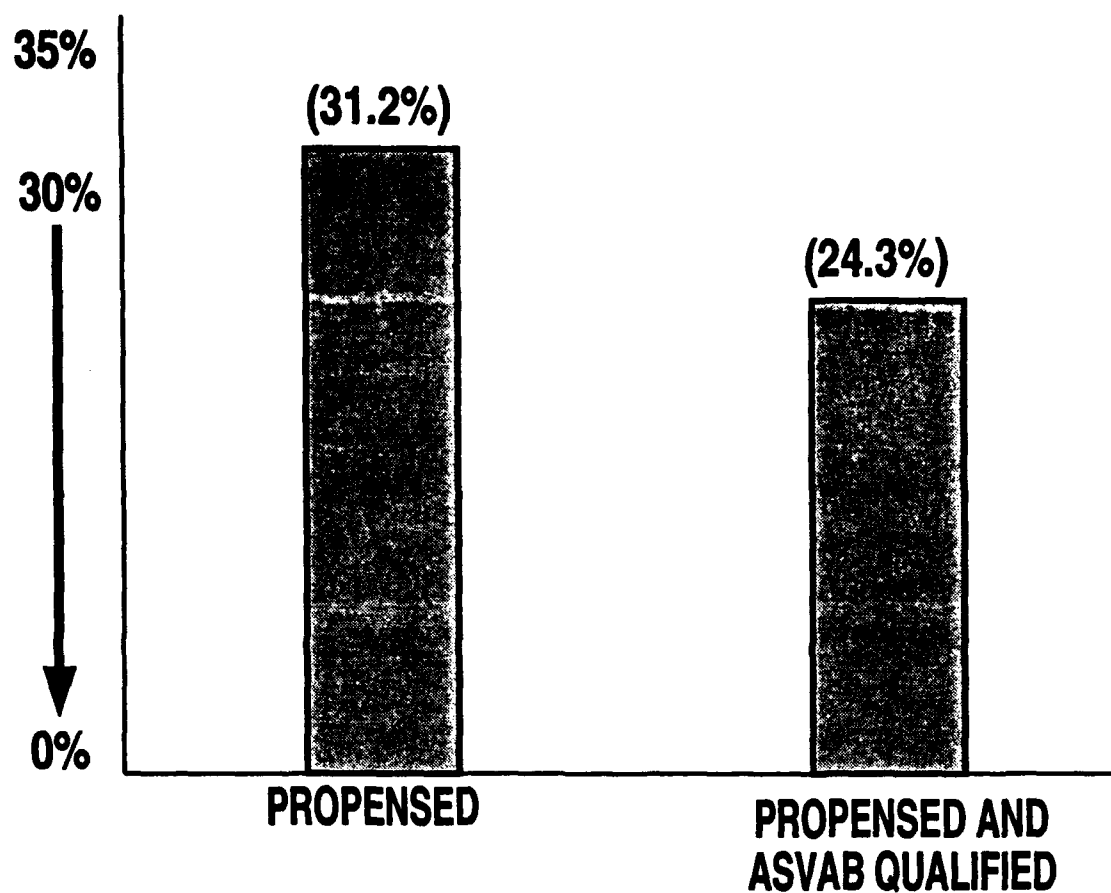
³mechanical comprehension, auto and shop information.

estimates on future recruitment possibilities are not available, but certainly percentages of women will rise if equal effort is made to recruit both men and women, despite women's ASVAB deficiencies. For the remainder of this study, a maximum of 25% for women's representation will be used to predict the possible high end impact of women's gender issues in the future.

A critical choice for new recruits is the rating he or she selects. That choice determines how much time the sailor will spend at sea and ashore and the likelihood for advancement. It is limited by how many billets and school quotas are available at the time of recruitment. Many believe that women choose "traditional" jobs and men are left with the remainder. It is important to quantify the difference between men and women's choices.

FIGURE II-2

FEMALE ASVAB SCORES VS. PROPENSITY



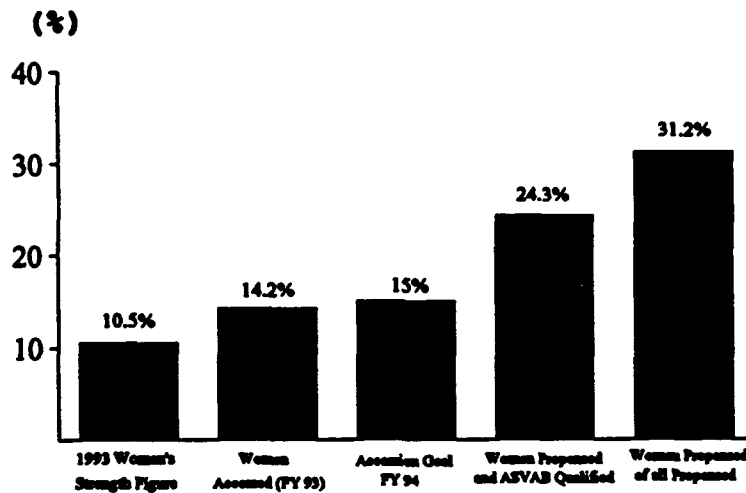
Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Recruiting Women," Brief, Washington, D.C., November 1992; Edward Schmidt, Ph.D., U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, interview by author, 16 December 1993.

TABLE II-1**NAVY RECRUITING (1992)**

	MALE	FEMALE
17-21 YEAR OLD POPULATION	9,200,000	8,500,000
PRIME MARKET	2,198,800	2,601,000
NAVY PROPENSITY	175,361 (68.8*)	79,620 (31.2*)
ACCESSIONS	49,747	8,226
% OF ALL NAVY ACCESSIONS	85.5	14.2
% OF PROPENSED	28.4	10.3

*Percentage of all propensed

Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Recruiting Women," Brief, Washington, D.C., 1992.

FIGURE II-3**NAVY OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN'S ACCESSIONS**

Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Recruiting Women," Brief, Washington, D.C., November 1992; Defense Manpower Data Center, "Women in the Military," Fact sheet, Monterey, Ca., 1993.

Sea intensive vs. Shore intensive distributions. Prior to 1989, women were recruited essentially with no effort, on a walk-in basis, and allowed to enter any field available. This led to a 60/40 split of traditional vs. nontraditional ratings for women as compared to a 30/70 split for men.⁷ Appendix B lists billets which are considered traditional ratings and those considered nontraditional. The general definition of these two groups is that traditional ratings are shore intensive, meaning more duty is spent ashore than at sea, and nontraditional are sea intensive.

Since 1989, the Naval Recruiting Command has worked toward increasing the percentage of women in nontraditional ratings (see table II-2), requiring an active recruiting effort for women. This shift in policy toward nontraditional recruiting of women reflects a necessary non-gender neutral^{*} approach. If women are to be fully integrated and accepted as equals, they must share assignments throughout the fields available. Sea/shore rotation policy is gender neutral,⁸ meaning that duty spent at sea and ashore is the same for men and women who are in the same rating. However, in order for men and women to spend equal time at sea and ashore, women must serve in sea intensive ratings in comparable percentages.

^{*}This paper does not examine comparisons with the Army and Air Force, but their recruiting efforts are gender neutral, resulting in 78% of the Army and 74% of the Air Force, compared to 40% of the Navy in traditional ratings (Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Recruiting Women," Brief, Washington, D.C., November 1992).

Figure II-4 presents the assignment distribution of men and women in the Navy today. Fifty-nine percent of men are at sea (this includes seagoing aviation squadrons and submarines) in comparison to 29% of women, while 43% of women are ashore in the continental United States (CONUS) in comparison to 20% of men. This disparity creates an attitude toward women as "shore duty grabbers" and the belief that they do not fill their fair share of difficult assignments. Of course, combat exclusion has prevented any resolution of that perception up to this point.

TABLE II-2

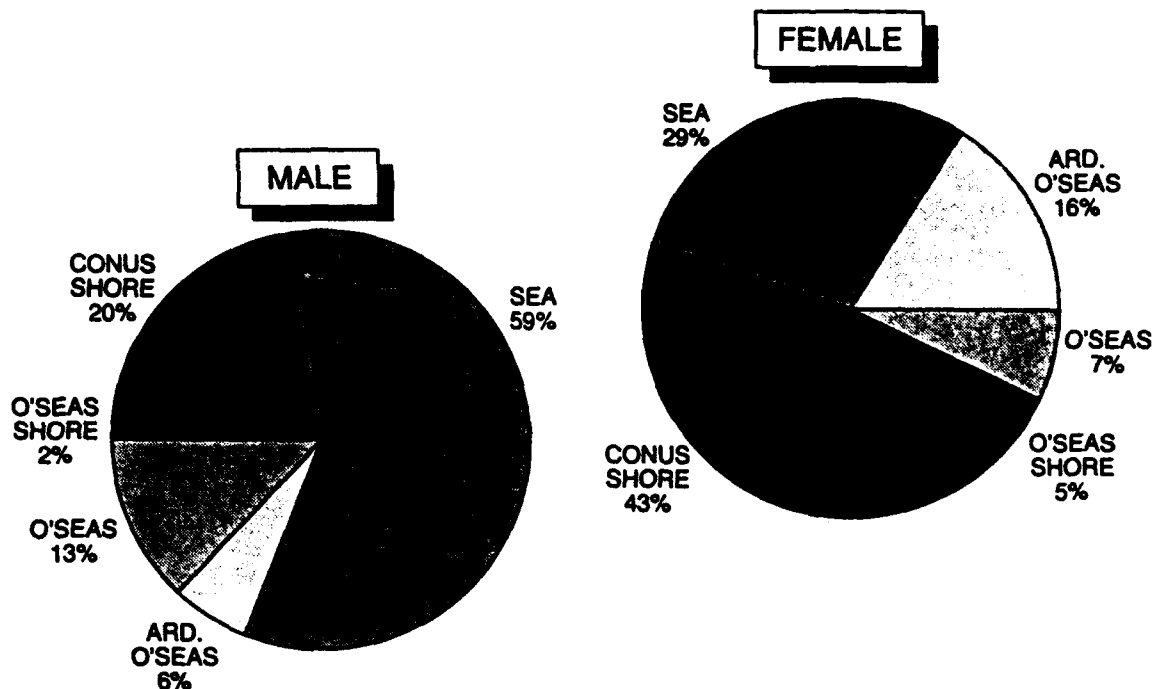
DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONNEL IN SEA/SHORE
INTENSIVE RATINGS AT ACCESSION

FISCAL YEAR	GENDER	SEA INTENSIVE		SHORE INTENSIVE	
		NUMBER	PERCENT	NUMBER	PERCENT
1987	FEMALE	2,620	43.2	3,438	56.8
	MALE	45,014	74.4	15,454	25.6
1988	FEMALE	3,138	42.1	4,312	57.9
	MALE	42,607	71.6	16,936	28.4
1989	FEMALE	3,765	49.7	3,817	50.3
	MALE	38,356	73.0	14,204	27.0
1990	FEMALE	3,405	50.5	3,337	49.5
	MALE	34,076	72.2	13,145	27.8

Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, as cited by An Update Report on the Progress of Women in the Navy, Washington, D.C., 1990, pp. 18-19; Facsimile from U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, Washington, D.C., 18 February 1994.

FIGURE II-4

ENLISTED ASSIGNMENT DISTRIBUTION



Source: Facsimile from Bureau of Naval Personnel (PERS-22), Washington, D.C., 7 February 1994.

Presently, women are onboard only 64 surface ships. There are approximately 400 more ships (including submarines) which, if available, would allow much higher percentages of women at sea. Integration of women onto combatants is being accomplished incrementally, often by decreasing the complement of women presently aboard noncombatants. This, combined with the decommissioning of many ships due to the drawdown, will not increase the numbers of women onboard ships significantly in the near future. Over time, however, the percentages of

women assigned at sea could meet the percentages of men assigned at sea.

It could be argued that all recruiting and assignment policies should be gender neutral and sailors should be brought into the Navy based on who is most qualified, allowing freedom of choice as to rating selection. However, the Navy has always weighed other factors into selecting how sailors will be assigned. Racial integration has succeeded because the services have attempted to "level the playing field"⁹ so that minorities are invited to participate in areas they have had little experience in or areas in which their schooling has been inadequate, with the services providing necessary training. Minorities have been given equal opportunity for service in all areas, which women are just now being given. I believe women should be treated in a similar manner to minorities. Goals (not quotas) should be maintained for encouraging higher percentages of women in nontraditional ratings. Women should be given greater opportunities to be trained in areas for which their background has been inadequate, which is done to a small degree in the Job Oriented Basic Skills (JOBS) Program.* In an all volunteer

*Increased participation by women in non-traditional fields training within the Navy's JOBS program, despite low ASVAB scores in the technical portions, was initiated due to a 1987 Navy Women's Study Group recommendation. Unfortunately, this program is underfunded and only 72 women (4.2% of all participants) attended in 1990 (Source: U.S. Navy, Chief of Naval Operations, An Update Report on the Progress of Women in the Navy, Washington, D.C., 1990, pp. I-56-57).

force, individuals cannot be forced to do what they do not choose when enlisting. Only efforts at encouraging alternative choices can be used to make women's choices more diverse, thereby encouraging their representation throughout the Navy.

However, difficulties in encouraging women to participate in nontraditional roles is reflected by the Naval Recruiting Command's survey of new recruits in June-July 1993 which measured women's desire to go to sea (see Appendix C).¹⁰ This survey was conducted before repeal of combat exclusion and, as a result, new recruit opportunities when joining the Navy were much different at that time than they are today. Key results were that one-third (33.3%) of the female recruits were probably not or definitely not interested in going to sea. In addition, almost half (44.1%) were probably not or definitely not interested in serving onboard a combatant ship. However, 84.1% stated they would go to sea if it were required. These results indicate possible reductions in numbers of women willing to join the Navy, but also some false perceptions concerning what joining the Navy entails. Traditional or nontraditional, most women will go to sea in the future and women recruited must be aware of this from the start.

Retention. Many perceive that women, in much greater numbers than men, will join the Navy, spend several years temporarily pursuing that career, attending schools and adding to the Navy's investment, only to choose marriage and motherhood

before the Navy can get the proper return on its investment. It is important to quantitatively analyze trends in retention so as to measure the validity of these perceptions.

Figure II-5 provides retention statistics for the years 1989-1993. These statistics show that women have higher losses than men during the first enlistment (approximately five percent higher), but lower losses than men for subsequent enlistments, making them a better investment if the Navy can retain them past their first enlistment. The concern, then, is with retention of first term female enlistees.

The Center for Naval Analyses (CNA) and the General Accounting Office (GAO) conducted studies concerning attrition and retention of female sailors. Both studies showed that pregnancy was a major reason for first term attrition,* pointing to that as an issue which should be addressed, particularly as the numbers of women increase (see table II-3). Subtracting pregnancy as a factor, fewer women than men were separated, meaning women's loss rates are lower in other areas, specifically misconduct and unsatisfactory performance (see table II-4).¹¹

A CNA study also focused on retention differences between women entering sea intensive ratings and shore intensive ratings. The differences between losses for CNA's selected categories--shore intensive, sea intensive/high percent

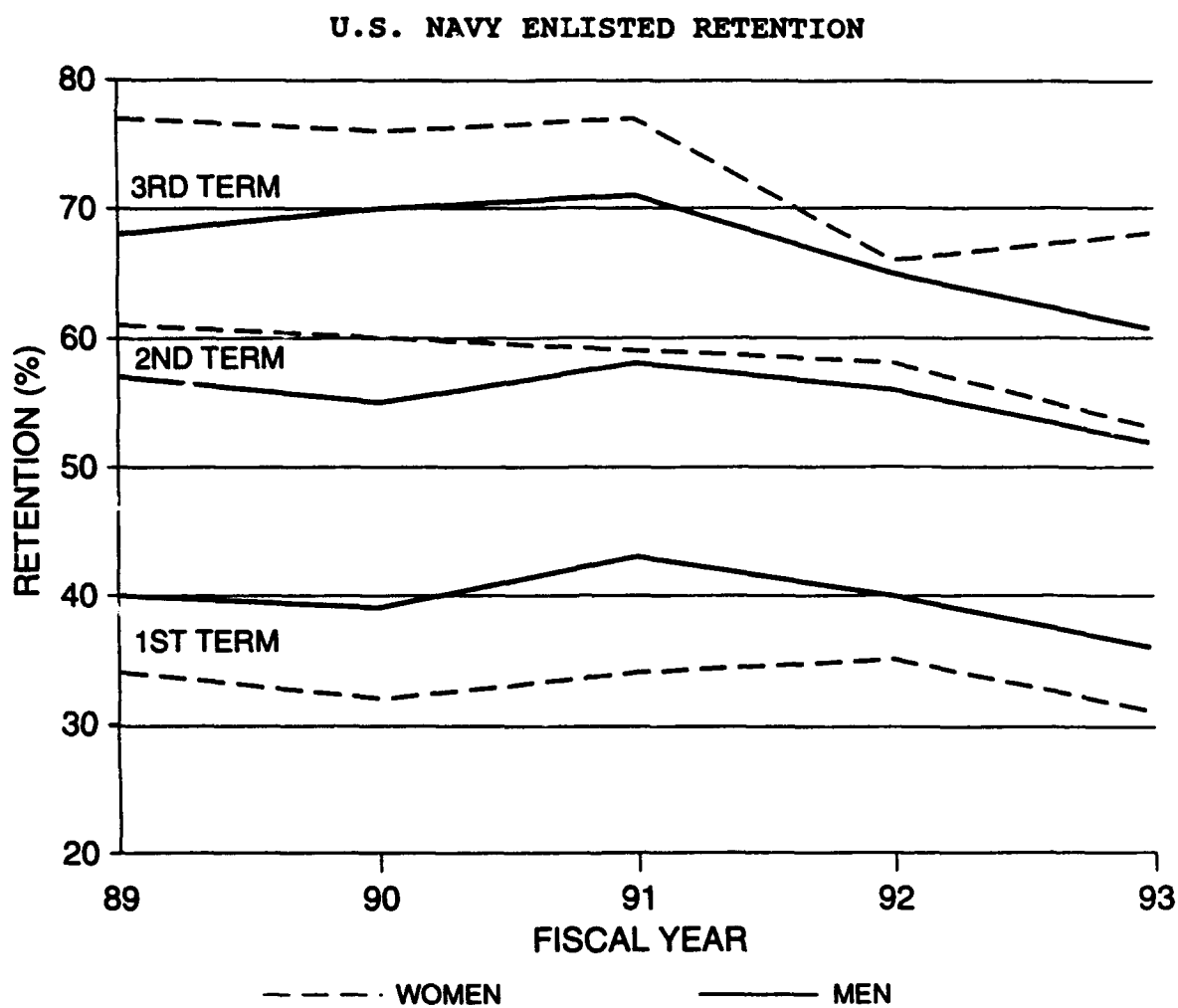
*Between one-third and one-fourth of all female separations in the GAO study were pregnancy discharges.

female, and sea intensive/low percent female, were not large (see table II-5).^{*} Women's assignments into sea intensive ratings does not appear to increase attrition.

Estimates for future accessions, recognition of issues concerning sea and shore intensive ratings and the difficulties associated with first term female retention provide the foundation for addressing gender issues. Long term effects of gender issues can now be extrapolated to the future.

^{*}Appendix D delineates the CNA study category ratings.

FIGURE II-5



Source: Facsimile from Bureau of Naval Personnel (PERS-22), Washington, D.C.,
7 February 1994.

TABLE II-3**PREGNANCY AS A PERCENTAGE OF ENLISTED WOMEN'S SEPARATIONS
(for a four year term-1984 accessions)**

MONTHS	PERCENT
0-6	6.5
7-12	42.6
13-18	35.5
19-24	36.2
25-30	33.5
31-36	37.2
37-42	19.3
43-48	2.7
AVERAGE	26.7
AVERAGE FOR 7-42 MONTHS*	34.1

*Separations during the first six months are mainly due to inadequate entry level performance for both sexes; separations during the last six months are mainly due to ineligibility or completion of obligated service for both sexes. Consequently, the average for the four year term less those periods was calculated.

Source: U.S. General Accounting Office, Women in the Military: Attrition and Retention, Washington, D.C., July 1990, p. 81.

TABLE II-4

**DIFFERENCES IN ENLISTED SEPARATIONS FOR MEN AND WOMEN
(excluding pregnancy)**

MONTHS	PERCENT ^a
0-6	1.24
7-12	-1.12
13-18	-1.99
19-24	-1.49
25-30	-1.14
31-36	-1.02
37-42	-0.95
<u>43-48</u>	<u>-4.79</u>
AVERAGE	-1.4
AVERAGE FOR 7-42 MONTHS	-1.3

^aMen's rates were subtracted from women's rates. Therefore, a negative number indicates a higher men's rate.

Source: U.S. General Accounting Office, Women in the Military: Attrition and Retention, Washington, D.C., July 1990, p. 82.

TABLE II-5

**RETENTION PERCENTAGES FOR ACCESSIONS IN THEIR
FIRST TERM OF SERVICE**

RATING GROUP OF ENTRY	12 MONTHS ^a		45 MONTHS ^b	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
SHORE INTENSIVE	87.9	89.2	72.0	74.2
SEA INTENSIVE/ HIGH % FEMALE	89.5	88.6	72.5	68.3
SEA INTENSIVE LOW % FEMALE	88.4	86.6	72.4	70.4

^aFY87 through FY90 accessions

^bFY84 through FY87 accessions

Source: Donna P. McDonald and Joyce S. McMahon, Survival Patterns for First-Term Navy Women, Center for Naval Analyses, Alexandria, Va., December 1992, p. iv.

CHAPTER III

GENDER ISSUES

Pregnancy. Pregnancy remains one of the key areas in which women are perceived to have a negative impact on fleet readiness. Until 1972, pregnant women were automatically discharged from the Navy and from 1972-1975, women were allowed to remain on a case by case basis. In 1975, the discharge policy was dropped altogether because it was judged unconstitutional.¹ Today, separation due to pregnancy "will not normally be approved."²

Present pregnancy policy requires women onboard ships to be reassigned to shore by the 20th week of their pregnancy. While still onboard, the needs of the Navy must be balanced with the needs of the pregnant woman, the unborn fetus, concerns of healthcare professionals, and hazards presented within the individual's workplace. These requirements often conflict, particularly in a shipboard environment.

The Navy has attempted to provide balance through its pregnancy instruction (see Appendix E). This instruction restricts pregnant servicewomen from remaining onboard if the ship is underway and the time for medical evacuation to a treatment facility is greater than six hours. The instruction also restricts pregnant women from working in an environment where there are "hazardous conditions" or where the environment would be "hazardous to the servicewoman, the

unborn child, and other servicemembers of the unit."³ A Navy Personnel Research and Development Center (NPRDC) survey showed that 79% of women afloat believed they were working in a hazardous environment when they became pregnant. Seventy-nine percent of supervisors also believed pregnant women were working in a hazardous environment.⁴ This indicates that even when the woman is still assigned to the ship, she may be reassigned to different or lesser duties or removed from the ship prior to the 20th week.

The impact onboard ship, however, is more focused on the individual's pending removal from the ship and how long it takes to replace and train a new crewmember than to time lost while remaining assigned to the ship. Upon notification of pregnancy, Commanding Officers submit an enlisted availability report for an unplanned loss. Normal time to replace the individual is from 4-6 months. Considering nine weeks' for notification of the command that an individual is pregnant, the average billet gap is 11 weeks.⁶

In 1976, the Chief of Naval Personnel received three complaints that mission accomplishment was being negatively effected by pregnant servicewomen and consequently, NPRDC conducted a study which found instead that women were responsible for fewer days of absenteeism than men, even including pregnancy absences.⁷

There was skepticism concerning the validity of this study and perceptions of excessive pregnancies and negative

effects continued to persist. The presence of women onboard ships following that study made the controversy even more acute. Consequently, NPRDC launched a three year study beginning in 1987 concerning pregnancy of enlisted women and the effects on "mission accomplishment,"⁸ in order to validate and expand the previous study's findings.

Enlisted women, who represent 10.5% of the Navy population, have an annual pregnancy rate of approximately 13%, which is similar to the rate for their civilian counterparts.⁹ The annual rate for all Navy personnel is then 1.4% which, due to its small percentage, has an insignificant impact on fleet readiness. Multiplying that by 2.5 to account for the maximum predicted growth in the Navy's female population (from 10-25%) results in 3.5% overall, which remains an insignificant percentage. Percentages of pregnancies during afloat assignments were found to be slightly lower than those ashore,¹⁰ contrary to perceptions that women generally get pregnant to escape sea duty (see table III-1). The trend remains, however, that the highest rates of pregnancy are in paygrades E-4 and below (see figure III-1).

⁹For example, the annualized pregnancy rate for 20-24 year olds was 16.5 percent (Navy) and 16.3 percent (civilian). This is the highest pregnancy rate for any age group. (Source: U.S. Navy, Chief of Naval Operations, An Update Report on the Progress of Women in the Navy, Washington, D.C., 1990, pp. II-73-74.)

NPRDC also conducted lost time studies to identify the costs in manhours of pregnancy to any command. These studies showed that pregnant women lose approximately one day per month. The study confirmed that hourly absences of women and men do not differ significantly, despite pregnancy absences.¹¹

Pregnancy is, and should remain, an area of constant review. Statistics provide small comfort to a ship's Commanding Officer with undermanned workcenters due to coincidental concentrations of pregnant females and morale problems caused by pregnancies prior to or during a deployment. Pregnancy is not a problem which will impair fleet readiness because it occurs in such small percentages overall, but it can have a negative effect on sailors' quality of life.

TABLE III-1
REPRESENTATION OF PREGNANT WOMEN BY DUTY LOCATION*

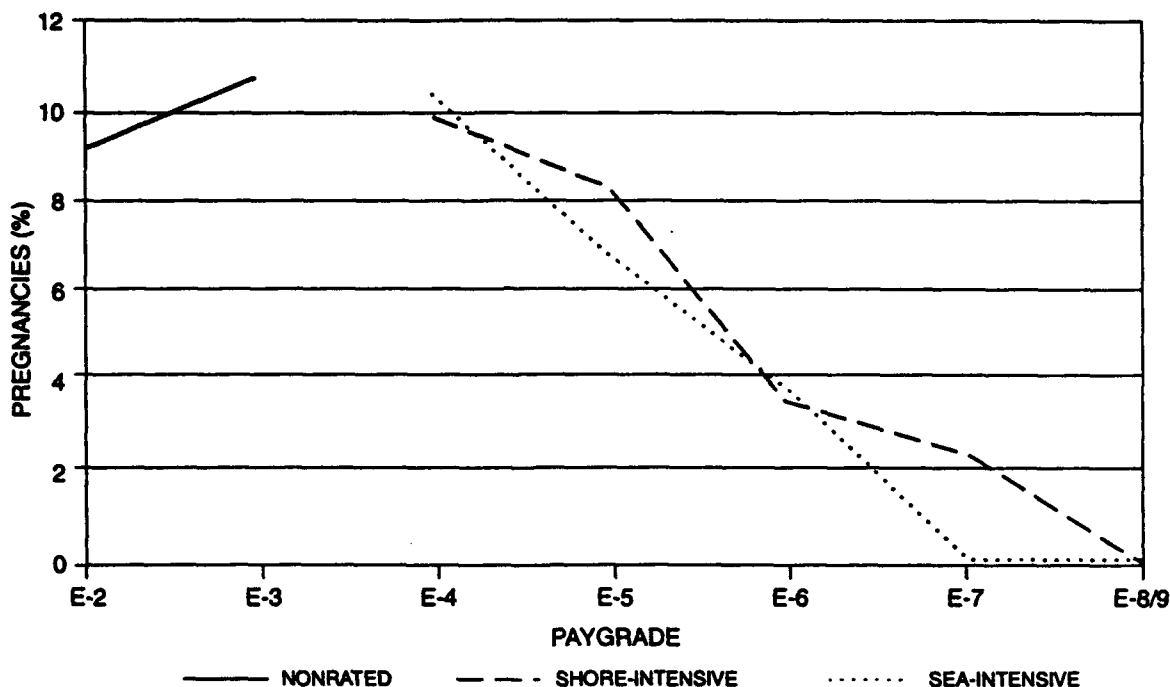
LOCATION	PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN WHO WERE PREGNANT
CONUS	9.4
OUT OF CONUS	8.4
ASHORE	9.0
AFLOAT	6.8
NOT DEPLOYED	8.8
DEPLOYED	7.1

*The pregnancy rates, which are presented herein, have not been adjusted to show an annualized rate. To perform such an adjustment, the percentage of women currently pregnant would be multiplied by 1.33. For example, if 8.6 percent of enlisted women were pregnant at the time of the survey, the annualized rate of pregnancy would be approximately 11.4 percent, that is, during a full 12-month year, about 11.4 percent of the enlisted women would be expected to have been in some stage of pregnancy.

Source: Patricia Thomas and Jack Edwards, Incidence of Pregnancy and Single Parenthood Among Enlisted Personnel in the Navy, Navy Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, Ca., October 1989, p. 7.

FIGURE III-1

PREGNANCY RATES BY PAYGRADE/RATING



Source: Patricia Thomas and Jack Edwards, Incidence of Pregnancy and Single Parenthood Among Enlisted Personnel in the Navy, Navy Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, Ca., 1989, p. 6.

Efforts need to be made to decrease the percentages of women becoming pregnant while assigned to ships. Ideally, proper planning should result in only rare occasions of pregnancy while on sea duty because of the negative effects of women being removed from ships for approximately nine months! That is, if they are returned to the same ship at all. In 1990, 1145 women onboard ships were reassigned due to

Last 20 weeks of pregnancy plus reassignment to complete sea duty four months following birth, in accordance with OPNAVINST 6000.1A.

pregnancy.¹² While insignificant from the perspective of the Navy's more than 500,000 person enlisted workforce, this still affects continuity and teamwork onboard individual ships.

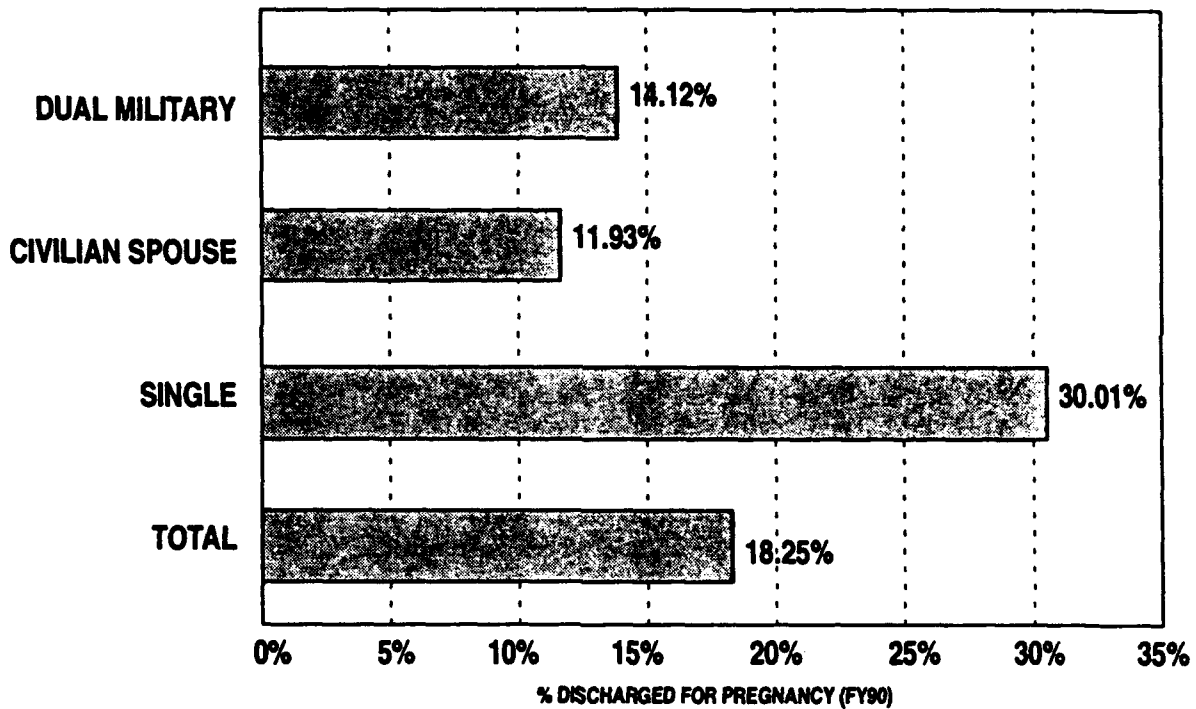
While not shipboard specific, study results indicate areas where efforts should be made. Surveys showed that 60% of all pregnancies were unplanned. Unfortunately, results also showed that sex education did not seem to decrease the number of unplanned pregnancies,¹³ perhaps reflecting poor training methods rather than the inability of training to make an impact. As mentioned earlier, pregnancy rates are highest during first enlistments (see figure III-1) and 18.25% of Navy women who became pregnant were subsequently discharged, resulting in lost investments. Even more striking, of those pregnant women who were single, 30% were discharged (see figure III-2). The remainder become single parents, an issue area which will be addressed next.

These statistics reflect significant leadership issues. The influence of role models, mentors and other concerned leaders cannot be discounted. Awareness of these disappointing statistics by junior enlisted personnel is necessary so that men and women who are in the vulnerable categories, as well as leaders who have the opportunity to make a difference, are armed with a clear knowledge of probable outcomes. Effective leadership and training could lead to reductions in unplanned pregnancies and perhaps better timing of planned pregnancies, particularly during first

enlistments. Fifty-eight percent of enlisted women are E-4 and below (48% of males--see table III-2), the ratings in which pregnancy is the highest. Decreases in pregnancy rates during the first term, when most women will be at sea, will make women sailors a better investment.

FIGURE III-2

SEPARATION RATE OF PREGNANT WOMEN*



The separation percentages of pregnant women, shown in the figure above, are based on the estimated number that were pregnant in 1990. This rate represents the percentage of those who became pregnant who were separated from the Navy for pregnancy. Thus, while table III-7 shows that the pregnancy discharge rate was low (3.5%), this figure indicates 30% of single women who became pregnant were discharged. Furthermore, single women were twice as likely as married women to leave the Navy when they became pregnant.

*Estimated percentages based on the responses of 1,656 women surveyed in 1990.

Source: Patricia Thomas and Marie Thomas, Impact of Pregnant Women and Single Parents upon Navy Personnel Systems, Navy Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, Ca., February 1992, p. 16.

TABLE III-2

PERCENTAGE OF ENLISTED PERSONNEL E-4 AND BELOW

	MALE	FEMALE
E-4 AND BELOW (#/%)	204,296/48.2	28,279/57.7
TOTAL (#)	423,930	49,032

Source: U.S. Navy, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Second Quarter Fiscal Year 1993 Naval Personnel Statistics, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., March 1993, pp. 14,44.

Single Parenthood. High rates of single women who are pregnant obviously results in single parenting. However, there are presently more male single parents in the Navy than female single parents and consequently, single parenthood is not necessarily a gender issue. Navy policy provides no special treatment for single parents, but does not allow single parents with custody of their children to enlist. Assignments are in no way affected by single parent status (see table III-3).

In 1988, there were 14,800 male* and 6400 female single parents, representing 4.5% of the total Navy population. This constitutes 13% of the female Navy population and 40% of female parents, but only 3.5% of the male Navy population and 8% of male parents (see tables III-4-5). These figures

*In comparison to previous studies, this number reflects only those who have custody of children, rather than including those who simply are single and monetarily supporting children.

indicate that female sailors are five times more likely to be single parents than male sailors.¹⁴

TABLE III-3

DUTY ASSIGNMENTS OF NAVY PARENTS

PERCENTAGE

<u>LOCATION</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>		<u>MALE</u>	
	<u>SINGLE</u>	<u>MARRIED</u>	<u>SINGLE</u>	<u>MARRIED</u>
ASHORE	90	91	57	57
AFLOAT	10	9	43	43
CONUS	66	63	85	79
OVERSEAS	34	37	15	21

Source: Thomas and Edwards, p.19.

TABLE III-4

SINGLE PARENT PERCENTAGES (1988)

	<u>FEMALE</u>		<u>MALE</u>		<u>TOTAL</u>	
	<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>
Enlisted Force	47,539	9.2	466,759	90.8	514,298	100
Single Parents	6,400	13.5	14,800	3.2	21,200	4.1

Source: Thomas and Edwards, p.24; Facsimile from the Defense Manpower Data Center, Monterey, Ca., 7 February 1994.

TABLE III-5**MARITAL STATUS OF PARENTS****PERCENTAGE (by paygrades)**

FEMALE			MALE			
	E-2,3,4	E-5-9	TOTAL	E-2,3,4	E-5-9	TOTAL
MARRIED	56.7	63.2	60.5	88.4	92.8	91.8
SINGLE	43.3	36.8	39.5	11.6	7.2	8.2

Source: Thomas and Edwards, p.17.

If the female population grows to 25% of the Navy, the number of female single parents will meet or exceed the number of male single parents and the number of single parents would grow to 6.2% of the total force (see table III-6). Therefore, if single parents are considered a significant administrative burden or attrition of single parents is large, single parenthood would then have a deleterious effect on fleet readiness. However, this is not the case.

Studies show that single parenthood peaks at the E-6 level for both genders, 22% of female first class petty officers and 6% of male first class petty officers are single parents (see figure III-3). At this paygrade, the maturity and financial position of these individuals is such that balancing single parenting with a Navy career is feasible.

NPRDC conducted a study in 1989 to determine lost time trends. It was found that parents onboard ships lost six more

minutes per day (22 hours per year) than nonparents and single personnel lost nine more minutes per day (33 hours per year) than married personnel. However, data was insufficient to determine the differences between single and married parents. Further study should be conducted to make this determination. The study revealed that absences due to caring for dependents caused significant increases in lost time,¹⁵ indicating that parenting causes higher losses, whether an individual is married or single. A 1990 study found that 0.7% of all separations were due to single parenthood (see table III-7), making this an insignificant concern.

Discharge and lost time statistics indicate that single parenthood does not have a negative impact on fleet readiness, even on an individual level. Single parents have increased responsibility, but appear to handle it in a similar manner to married parents. Increases in women's percentages will significantly increase the number of single parents, but their performance remains essentially equal to that of married parents.

Facts concerning single parenthood, as with pregnancy, should be acknowledged and managed. Again, 60% of pregnancies are unplanned. There is no question that the burden of taking care of children without spousal support and balancing that with the exhausting demands of shipboard life is difficult for any single parent. The Navy should provide training and mentoring leadership which will deter single women and men

from having children until they have reliable support and are senior enough to financially afford children.

Navy systems should also work toward providing reliable child care, particularly for seagoing parents, and support systems for times of crises, as the Navy's Family Home Care (FHC) program is designed. These quality of life initiatives will allow all parents the security and peace of mind needed to focus on their Navy jobs.

TABLE III-6

POSSIBLE GROWTH IN NUMBERS OF SINGLE PARENTS*

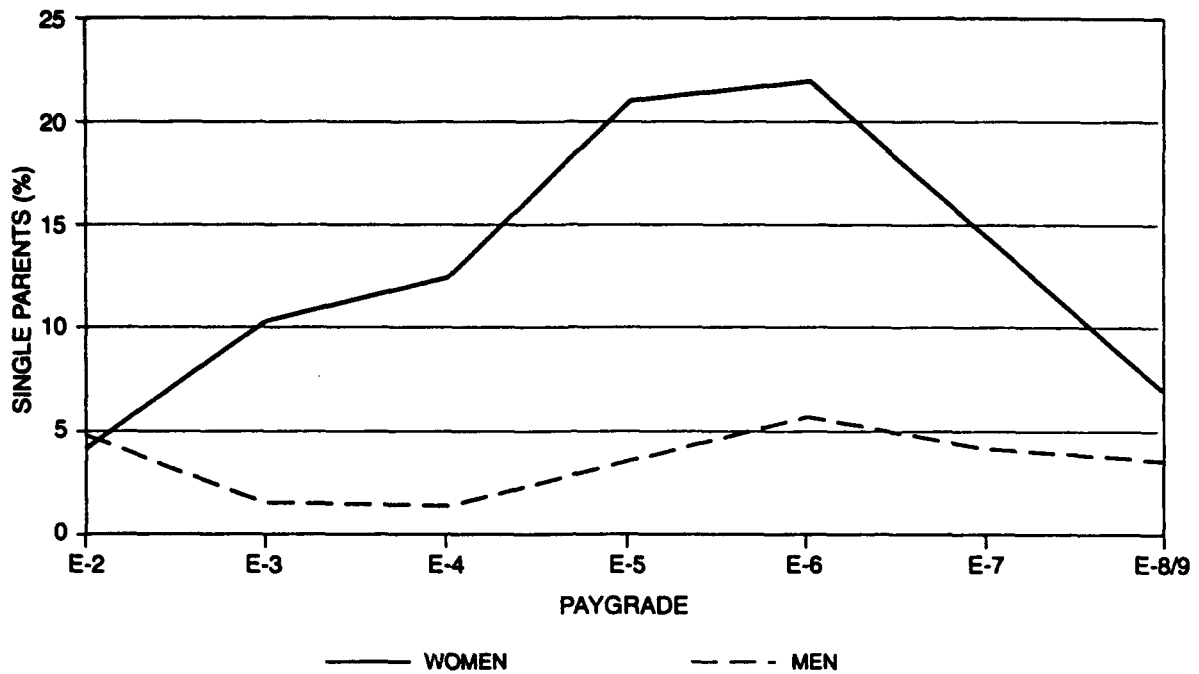
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
	NUMBER	PERCENT	NUMBER	PERCENT	NUMBER	PERCENT
PRESENT ENLISTED FORCE	45,919	10.5	392,968	89.5	438,887	100
PRESENT SINGLE PARENTS	6,199	13.5	12,575	3.2	18,744	4.3
ENLISTED FORCE W/25% FEMALE	109,722	25	329,165	75	438,887	100
SINGLE PARENTS W/25% FEMALE	14,812	13.5	12,575	3.2	27,387	6.2

*This assumes percentages of single parents, male and female, remain constant and force size remains constant.

Source: Facsimile from Defense Manpower Data Center, Monterey, Ca., 7 February 1994; Thomas and Edwards, p. 24.

FIGURE III-3

DISTRIBUTION OF SINGLE PARENTS BY SEX/PAYGRADE



Source: Thomas and Edwards, p. 18.

TABLE III-7**REASONS FOR SEPARATION PRIOR TO
COMPLETION OF ENLISTMENT^a
(FISCAL YEAR 1990)****NUMBER OF SEPARATIONS**

DISCHARGE REASON	1ST ENLISTMENT	2ND-5TH ENLISTMENT	% OF ALL DISCHARGES
PREGNANCY	974	105	3.5
HARDSHIP	491	216	2.3
PARENTHOOD	193	115	1.0
OTHER REASONS	4,517	111	16.0
BEHAVIORAL	1,755	396	6.1
COMMISSIONING PROGRAM	576	1,021	5.2
MEDICAL	3,021	1,854	15.9
PERSONALITY DISORDERS	6,199	985	23.5
PUNITIVE	6,668	962	24.9
SEXUAL DEVIANCE	386	81	1.5
TOTAL	24,780	5,846	99.9

^aThe review of BUPERS-authorized hardship separations over 12 months and the fiscal year 1990 separation data revealed that single parents represented 21% of all parents receiving a discharge for hardship and parenthood. Applying this proportion to the total of such discharges yields an estimated .7% of all FY90 separations.

Source: Patricia Thomas and Marie Thomas, Impact of Pregnant Women and Single Parents upon Navy Personnel Systems, Navy Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, Ca., February 1992, p. 17.

Physiology. Women are generally weaker than men due to their lower muscle mass. Women also have lower aerobic capacity and less heat tolerance due to greater fat mass than men. However, greater levels of body fat do provide some advantage in swimming.¹⁶ The impact of these differences on women's ability to perform onboard ship must be determined.

In 1986, the Navy requested a study which would "allow the Navy the best choice of personnel assignment in a time of access to a decreasing manpower pool."¹⁷ Congress expressed concerns about the capabilities of women in shipboard environments to: "(1) extricate injured personnel (2) control fire hose nozzles, and (3) move through watertight doors and scuttles."¹⁸ Researchers identified three tasks which would satisfy these concerns: controlling a firehose, carrying a P-250 pump and carrying a stretcher. Results of these tests are shown in figure III-4. Women, on the average, were unable to physically handle the P-250 pump and the stretcher.

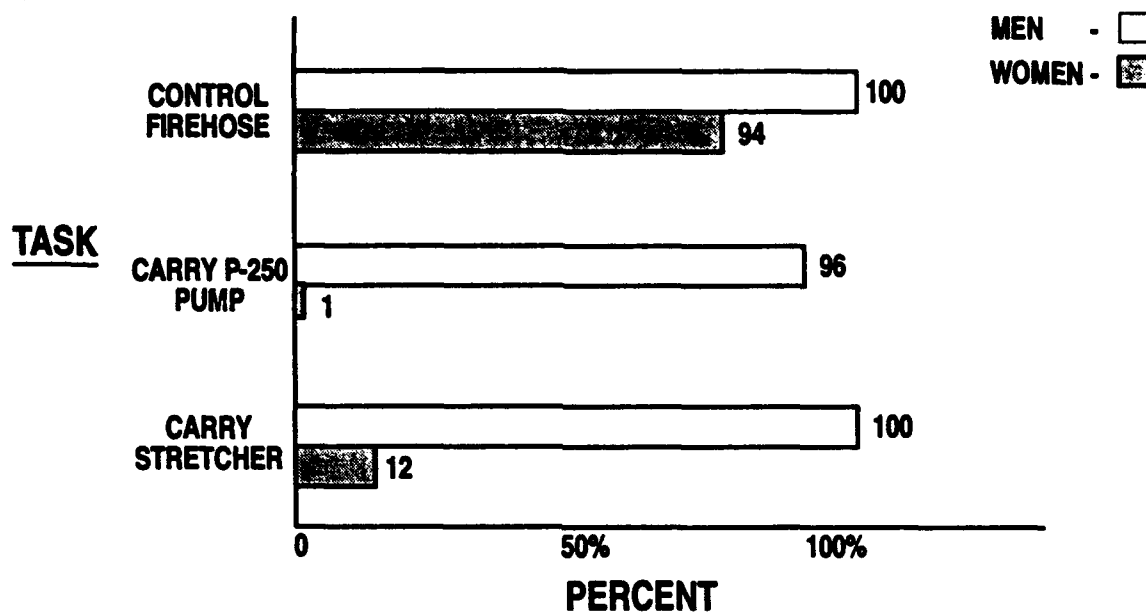
It is important to understand what was demanded in these tests:

The primary muscular demand of handling a fire hose nozzle involves the rapid, continuous sweep (both horizontal and vertical) of the nozzle, while wearing 14 pounds of cumbersome oxygen breathing apparatus. The emergency P-250 water pump weighs 147 pounds and must be lifted out of a storage case and rapidly carried by two individuals to the scene of a fire or to a flooded compartment. Two stretcher bearers must carry a victim (the average Navy man weighs 166 pounds) in a Stokes stretcher (25 pounds), up or down very

steep ladders and maneuver through very tight spaces.¹⁸

FIGURE III-4

PERCENTAGE OF NAVY MEMBERS ABLE TO MEET SHIPBOARD
EMERGENCY PHYSICAL REQUIREMENTS



Source: Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces, Washington, D.C., November 1992, p. C-9.

These tasks are carried out by a damage control party, a team of shipboard members. These teams will consist of various personnel, trained to carry out emergency shipboard tasks. Common sense rules. Women, as well as men, who are less muscular will not be assigned the most muscularly strenuous duties. There are many other duties which are not muscularly demanding.* In addition, more personnel would be

*Phone talkers, messengers, fire watch, handling CO₂ extinguishers, first aid, etc.

assigned to a particularly difficult task if necessary. Finally, technology continues to decrease the number of jobs and types of equipment which are difficult to handle. Lightweight equipment and improved designs should compensate for limits in the muscular ability of all shipboard personnel. Increases in numbers of women should not negatively affect the ability of ships to respond to shipboard emergencies.

However, some physical requirements may be necessary. The Navy presently has four occupations for which "more stringent" physical standards (but not strength standards) have been designed: airman, diver, explosive ordnance disposal, and Sea, Air and Land (SEAL) teams.²⁰ The Fiscal Year 1994 National Defense Authorization Act recognizes that gender neutral physical standards may be required in order to ensure individuals are capable of doing their jobs safely. Consequently, Title II, Subtitle D, Section 543 states that:

For any military occupational specialty for which the Secretary of Defense determines that specific physical requirements for muscular strength and endurance and cardiovascular capacity are essential to the performance of duties, the Secretary shall prescribe specific physical requirements for members in that specialty and shall ensure that those requirements are applied on a gender-neutral basis.²¹

This statute ensures that physiological differences between men and women will neither prevent all women from being excluded from certain tasks nor allow incapable personnel to be assigned to demanding jobs. It is unlikely that any

shipboard duties would require these types of standards, but this failsafe prevents valid arguments against increased percentages of women onboard ships due to physical insufficiencies without establishing necessity and consequent gender neutral standards.

Sexual Harassment. In 1981, the Department of Defense formally established its first sexual harassment policy. Subsequently, the Secretary of Defense convened a Task Force on Women in the Military in 1987 which determined that sexual harassment in the military was a "significant problem."²² The Defense Manpower Data Center conducted a survey in 1988 which found that 22% of military respondents had experienced sexual harassment in the previous year²³ and in 1989 and 1991, NPRDC conducted surveys which found that 42% and 44%, respectively, of the female enlisted interviewed believed they had been sexually harassed in the previous year.²⁴ These results point toward ineffective policy and a significant and growing problem.

In November of 1989, the Navy's sexual harassment instruction had been revised and more strongly emphasized intolerance and mandated preventive training.²⁵ But despite policy changes, stronger statements and required training, overall decreases in the magnitude of sexual harassment did not appear to occur. Unfortunately, data on how often, how much, and to what extent sexual harassment occurred was not statistically measured by the Navy.

Sexual harassment became a key topic for the United States Navy after publication of incidents concerning the 1991 Tailhook Convention in Las Vegas, Nevada. Investigations which occurred following that event implied an even larger problem. The Navy has set out to solve this problem in a manner similar to that which was used to integrate minorities and eliminate the presence of drugs.²⁶

First, the Navy began with top leadership's revitalized endorsement of "zero tolerance." This was followed by mandatory sexual harassment training for every Navy member. In addition, the Navy tasked senior commanders to collect and report all incidents of sexual harassment and those which were substantiated.

Following the initial flood of requirements, the Navy began to develop steady state methods for reducing sexual harassment. First, the Navy provides a 1-800 Advice and Counseling Line.²⁷ This is not a "hot line," but a resource for any member involved in a situation in which clarification of rights and responsibilities is required. Calls are anonymous, but logged for data purposes. This phone line receives 50-100 calls per month, most of which are requests for clarification of the Navy's policy. This resource is useful for any policy which is subject to interpretation. Although the consequences of committing sexual harassment are clear, what constitutes a substantiable case of sexual harassment is not always clear.

The Navy has also published a booklet entitled "Resolving Conflict."²⁸ This booklet is a short, concise, cookbook method for determining what actions are appropriate in various situations. This is an attempt to resolve issues before they reach formal levels, but details the path toward formal resolution if suggested methods are unsuccessful. Every Navy member can use this resource to reduce the number of unresolvable situations.

Finally, the Navy has established a Sexual Assault/Sexual Harassment (SASH) Database, which is coming on line through a linked computer network in 1994.²⁹ This allows a continuously updated tracking method for all sexual harassment cases, allowing the Navy to statistically measure the effectiveness of sexual harassment policies and programs. Table III-8 reflects incidents of sexual harassment recorded since 1989. This information reflects the lack of data collection, as well as incidents reported, prior to 1992. It also reflects the power of Navy attention (beginning following Tailhook) in any area of concern.

TABLE III-8

SEXUAL HARASSMENT STATISTICS*

FISCAL YEAR	NO. OF REPORTED COMPLAINTS (1)		NO. OF REPORTS SUBSTANTIATED (2)		RATIO (2/1)	
	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN
1992	59	379	41	271	.79	.71
1991	6	39	0	12	0	.31
1990	6	45	0	11	0	.24
1989	0	31	0	10	0	.32

*FY92 was the first year of a new complaint tracking system. Prior to that year, only complaints reaching headquarters level were tracked. These included only UCMJ Article 138 and Navy Regulations Article 1150 complaints, congressional inquiries and direct referrals to BUPERS Equal Opportunity division.

Source: "Military Equal Opportunity Assessment," Chief of Naval Personnel (PERS-61), Washington, D.C., 1992, p. 8-5.

If the total number of reported complaints is considered in comparison to the total number of personnel in the Navy, the number of individuals involved is less than 0.1% of the Naval force. For several reasons, however, this is not the case. First, the data base was recently initiated and data must be collected over several more years before trends which reflect reductions in sexual harassment can be seen. Second, the repercussions of an individual case of sexual harassment involve at least two people and often entire workcenters and even commands. Therefore, the presence of any cases of sexual harassment should remain an object of concern for the Navy. Finally, because of the nature of sexual harassment, all cases are not reported and therefore the data does not reflect each case of harassment. Continuous data collection will show

trends which can be used as a basis for evaluating whether present policies are effective or if more must be done to solve this problem.

The Navy's program to reduce sexual harassment should be effective. Combat exclusion repeal, which will allow women increased opportunities to share the Navy's mission will eliminate a major cause of sexual harassment, but the Navy must continue to monitor statistics to ensure success. The methods described should also be used as an example for other policies in which circumstances often determine whether behaviors are appropriate or not.

Fraternization. Major David S. Jonas, USMC, stated:

The legitimacy of service regulations depends upon the validity of the services' purposes...and upon whether or not the Navy is successful in achieving its purpose through enforcement of the regulations.³⁰

The purpose of fraternization regulations is to maintain the integrity of the rank structure and thereby ensure good order and discipline. This is certainly valid, so the question becomes; do we achieve that purpose through the Navy's regulations? In analyzing this, it is important to keep in mind the history of sexual harassment in the military and to determine whether any lessons learned should be applied to fraternization. Despite the belief that women in the military have greatly increased the incidence of fraternization, this is an area which applies to both genders.

In 1987, the Navy Women's Study Group (NWSG) reported that fraternization was widespread and action needed to be taken to reduce its occurrence. In 1989, the CNO signed the Navy's first fraternization policy and in 1990, the NWSG's update reported that the problem did not seem to be solved and that the regulation remained unclear.³¹ A revision to the 1989 instruction is presently in draft stage.³² Survey results reflect that fraternization is widespread, but not considered a problem by many service members.³³ These contradictory opinions indicate either a lack of understanding of what fraternization is or a lack of support of Navy policy by servicemembers. Navy regulations presently state that fraternization is "prohibited"³⁴ and the revised instruction supports this regulation.

The Navy has not gathered statistical data which would, as with sexual harassment, encourage enforcement of regulations and indicate the scope of the fraternization issue. Similar to the manner in which sexual harassment was treated during the 1980's, ever stronger policy statements, as well as surveys, are being administered, but I would predict similar, ineffective results.

The impact of fraternization is unknown. However, the Navy's fraternization policy encourages good order and discipline and should be enforced. Data is needed to measure

³¹The 1991 biennial NPRDC Sexual Harassment Survey includes fraternization, which the 1989 survey did not.

the impact of fraternization policy. The Navy's sexual harassment database is an excellent model. In addition, an advice line which allows clarification of policy, as well as an easy to read, cookbook method for dealing with questionable situations would be appropriate for this area. Only in this way can the Navy ensure that it is "successful in achieving its purpose".

Anecdotal Evidence. During the week of 13 December 1993, Executive Officers and Command Master Chiefs from three Norfolk based ships were interviewed. The first was a destroyer tender which had had women onboard since its commissioning in 1983. The second was an oiler which had had women on board for more than three years and finally, a command ship which was gearing up for women's embarkation. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain senior operators' perspectives on gender issues onboard ships. Appendix F provides questions asked of these individuals which indicates the nature of the interviews, although each was conducted informally. The results, although statistically insignificant, led to useful conclusions.

The consensus of the two ships with women embarked was that women did not adversely impact mission readiness. However, particularly for the Command Master Chiefs, women's issues were a frequent and hotly debated topic. Physiology was not an issue and sexual harassment was being addressed

appropriately, but pregnancy, single parenthood, and fraternization were unresolved.

The Navy's pregnancy policy, in particular restrictions placed on women while they remain aboard the ship, have created difficulties. Each physician dictates restrictions independently for each woman such that some are virtually unrestricted and others are severely restricted. In addition, hazardous environment restrictions are arbitrary, based on the opinions of health care professionals and the Commanding Officer. This again results in widely ranging individual policies. The six hour rule for medically evacuating pregnant women at sea essentially prevents women from remaining onboard when the ship gets underway unless there is an embarked helicopter. These restrictions were cited in all cases as an administrative burden that interfered with women's usefulness while remaining onboard. Gapped billets due to pregnancies were also cited as a problem, particularly in workcenters which had more women.

Single parenthood was cited as an administrative burden, particularly with junior sailors who are unable to properly care for their children, either financially or physically. It was pointed out, however, that this was a gender neutral issue.

Fraternization was an area of strong concern, particularly for the Command Master Chiefs. It was stated that the problems of sexual harassment, shipboard pregnancies,

and single parenthood could be greatly reduced by enforcing the Navy's fraternization policy. The consensus was that fraternization could be reduced only by the consistent attention and enforcement of policy by the Commanding Officer. One ship went so far as to require a page 13 entry upon reporting which stated that each member understood and recognized the consequences of the fraternization policy.

Onboard the ship which was preparing for women, the leadership believed they would simply enforce Navy policy and use common sense to effectively deal with the transition. While their assumptions may be correct, I believe discussions onboard the two ships with mixed gender crews reflect the usefulness of insight gained by those who have had that experience. Navy Rights and Responsibilities workshops are being used to prepare the crew, but this is internally generated and does not necessarily draw from ships which have experienced women's integration first hand.

Commander, Naval Surface Force Atlantic Fleet (COMNAVSURFLANT) has established Fleet Introductory Teams (FIT) to smooth the transition.³⁵ These teams include various representatives from the waterfront (mixed ranks and genders) who monitor and advise throughout the steps of the embarkation process. Combat Logistics Group Two (COMLOGGRU2) has a collateral duty coordinator who has served onboard mixed gender ships and provides experienced guidance for the embarkation. Those groups and squadrons that do not presently

have mixed gender ships do not have these experienced staff members and the FIT teams do not necessarily include them. Utilization of staff members from other groups, like COMLOGGRU2, would be helpful to any ship embarking women for the first time.

No data or ship interview evidence concerning gender issues indicated that the expansion of women's percentages aboard ship would negatively impact fleet readiness. Key areas where improvements can be made have been identified for future Navy focus. Recognizing that some data is absent and much improvement can still be made, the next step is to measure Navy results against another seagoing service, the Coast Guard, to determine if the Navy can learn from the Coast Guard's experience.

CHAPTER IV

COAST GUARD COMPARISONS

Background. Before beginning this discussion, it should be recognized that the Coast Guard is significantly smaller than the Navy (less than 10% the size--see table IV-1). However, it remains useful to look at their women at sea program in order to examine whether lessons learned can be applied to the Navy.

TABLE IV-1

U.S. NAVY/COAST GUARD SIZE COMPARISONS

	NAVY	COAST GUARD
TOTAL ENLISTED FORCE	472,962	30,750
#/% WOMEN	49,032/10.5	2,572/8.4
#/% OF WOMEN AT SEA	7,733/15.8	273/10.6
MAXIMUM SHIP SIZE (FT)	400	1000+

Source: U.S. Navy, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Second Quarter Fiscal Year 1993 Bureau of Naval Personnel Statistics, Washington, D.C., 1993, pp. 14,44; Facsimile from U.S. Coast Guard Headquarters (G-Pd-2)), Washington, D.C., 27 January 1994.

Women became part of the active duty Coast Guard, as other than augmentees, in 1974. By 1978, Admiral John B. Hayes, then Commandant of the Coast Guard, stated:

All action remaining within the power of my office has been taken to assure that henceforth there will be absolutely no arbitrary restrictions based solely upon sex in the way the U.S. Coast Guard uses its people.¹

From that point on, any ships could have women assigned if

(1) the ship could adequately accommodate them and (2) there were enough women available. Women were not limited by combat exclusion, as Navy women have been, making Coast Guard results indicative of what could lie ahead for today's Navy women.

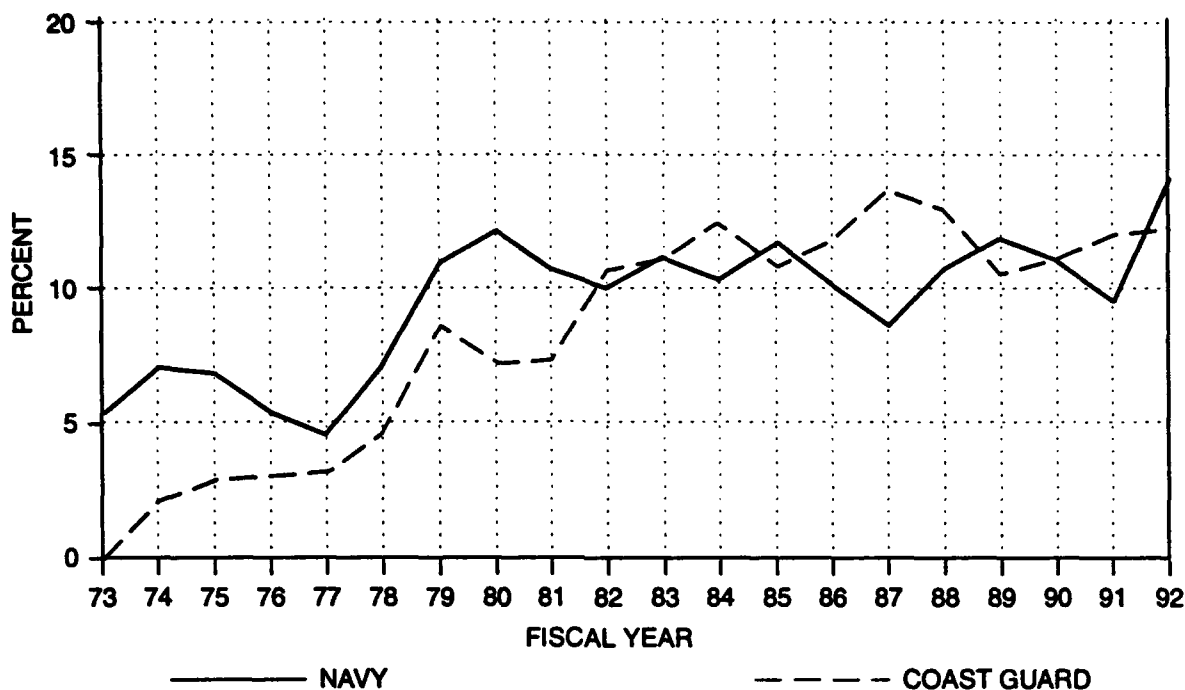
Recruitment/Retention. The Coast Guard has gender neutral recruiting and assignment policies. Despite these policies, it does not recruit significantly more (and sometimes less) percentages of women than the Navy which has been restricted by combat exclusion (see figure IV-1). The only all encompassing Coast Guard study,* conducted in 1989, determined that the Coast Guard's "passive" and "gender neutral" policies decreased the numbers of women in the Coast Guard.²

Since the study, the Coast Guard has attempted to increase its percentage of women (see table IV-2). The Coast Guard's goal was to recruit 15% women during 1992, but only 12.3% enlisted women were recruited. Through renewed efforts, 16.2% were recruited in 1993. Unfortunately, large rather than gradual increases in accessions, particularly during a period of downsizing, creates an increased percentage of women in the most junior ranks, with few seniors to provide role models. Nonetheless, the Coast Guard's goal is to increase its female recruits to 20% by 1994.

*Much of the data for the Coast Guard study was taken from NPRDC studies previously cited and a Coast Guard survey which was administered at that time.

FIGURE IV-1

U.S. NAVY/COAST GUARD FEMALE ACCESSIONS



Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Recruiting Women," Brief, Washington, D.C., November 1992.

TABLE IV-2

U.S. COAST GUARD ENLISTED GOALS AND ACCESSIONS

FISCAL YEAR	GOAL (%) ^a	ACCESSIONS (%)
1989	-	10.7
1990	-	11.2
1991	13	12.2
1992	15	12.3
1993	17	16.2
1994	20	-

^aFY91 was the first year a goal was set.

Source: U.S. Naval Recruiting Command, "Recruiting Women," Brief, Washington, D.C., 1993; Facsimile from USCG Headquarters (G-Pd-2), Washington, D.C., 27 January 1994, p. 5.

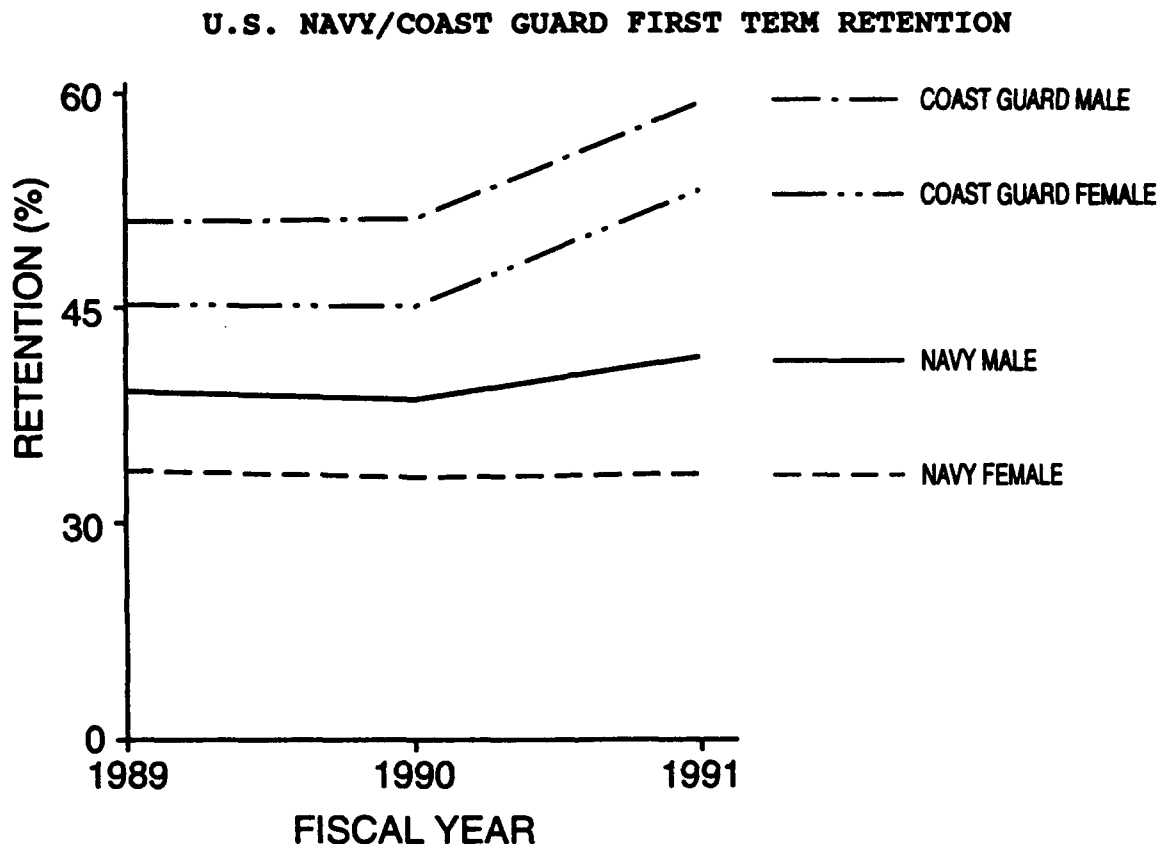
Gender neutral assignment policy has resulted in 75.5% of the Coast Guard's rated women filling five traditional ratings of the twenty-four Coast Guard ratings (see Appendix G). In fact, 36% of their rated female personnel are yeoman. This has limited women's shipboard assignments because of the much larger requirement for nontraditional ratings onboard many Coast Guard ship types. Rating distributions do not restrict women from going to sea, but only restrict which ships are made available. This continues to be a complaint among enlisted men and women in the Coast Guard. Women are stationed aboard only 21% of the Coast Guard's larger vessels³ in comparison to 14% for the Navy, which has been restricted by combat exclusion.

Coast Guard women may be encouraged to select nontraditional ratings because presently, school waiting periods are significantly longer for traditional ratings (up to 36 months) than for nontraditional ratings (often immediate). In addition, advancement opportunity is obviously nil for nonrated personnel and low for traditional ratings.⁴ Despite these circumstances, increased percentages of women in nontraditional ratings have not yet been noted.

Figure IV-2 reflects first term retention rates for men and women in the Coast Guard in comparison to the Navy. Retention of women in the Coast Guard during the first term is generally less than men, as in the Navy. This indicates that

allowing more women in traditional ratings has not succeeded in increasing retention.

FIGURE IV-2



Source: Facsimile from Bureau of Naval Personnel (PERS-22), Washington, D.C., 1 December 1993; F.M. Chlischczyk, "Coast Guard Enlisted Female Assignment Plan," Memorandum, Washington, D.C., November 1991, pp. II-8-9.

Gender Issues. The 1989 Women in the Coast Guard study indicated gender problems similar to those of the Navy,⁵ but used little statistical data. Specifically, it cited limited opportunities and quality of life issues as preventing Coast Guard women from being accepted or retained commensurate with their male counterparts.⁵ Unanswered questions include: Why has the Coast Guard not made more headway in resolving gender issues even though combat exclusion has not held them back? What does this mean for the Navy, where many have believed combat exclusion was the barrier preventing women from gaining equal status and thereby resolving gender issues? Though the data available does not provide answers, Coast Guard results do lead to the following conclusions:

- more data is necessary in order to draw firm conclusions and measure results

- gender neutral recruiting policies do not cause more women to join the Coast Guard

- active recruiting efforts are required in order to increase the percentages of women

- gender neutral assignment policies create a preponderance of women in traditional ratings

- lack of a combat exclusion law does not significantly reduce gender problems

The Coast Guard recognizes that more effort must be focused on recruiting, retaining and resolving gender issues

⁵The study did not address physiology. Of note, one Coast Guard cutter presently employs a 100% female boarding team (four members). This team is tasked with boardings as well as maintenance duties for the cutter. No problems have been reported (Source: Interview with the Central Assignment Coordinator, USCG Headquarters, Washington, D.C., 14 Dec. 1993).

for women. The Navy, which has more resources available, is well on its way to setting the example for the Coast Guard.

CHAPTER V

PERSIAN GULF WAR ANALYSIS

Data available concerning gender issues during the Gulf War is sparse and does not, in most cases, apply to the Navy's women at sea program. Navy women served aboard hospital, supply, oiler and ammunition ships and no Navy women saw combat, either directly or indirectly. Of the 37,000 women (6.8% of total U.S. forces), 3,700 were in the Navy, as opposed to 26,000 who were in the Army.¹ Nonetheless, this war should provide insight concerning gender issues.

Pregnancy was the only gender issue of concern. The Department of Defense's Final Report states that "non-deployability percentages for female personnel were somewhat higher than the percentage for male personnel. Pregnancy accounted for the largest difference in non-deployability percentages."² However, no figures are included.

Two GAO reports were prepared which concerned the role of women in the Persian Gulf. The first identified perceptions of an inordinate number of pregnancies, but again provided no statistical data to support this conclusion. The second report, which concerned non-deployability, again cited lack of data which could lead to concrete conclusions. In fact, the DOD reply stated that (1)"nondeployability is not a serious problem in the Department" and (2)"the numbers the GAO used in the report are confusing and not, in themselves, useful in

determining the impact on combat readiness."³ These remarks indicate that conclusions cannot be drawn concerning the impact of pregnancies due to lack of statistically accurate data, and that the problem of nondeployability has been discounted.

Better data and continuous tracking of statistics concerning gender issues is needed. In the future, conflicts may not have the luxuries of time and resources afforded the Persian Gulf War. In a smaller force, nondeployability of personnel may cause serious readiness problems. In order to reduce nondeployables, a critical first step is to measure the impact of various causes.

The media published various reports on the high rate of pregnancy onboard the USS ACADIA which deployed for seven-and-one-half months during the Gulf War. Reports stated that "more than 10% of the overall complement conceived."⁴ These kinds of reports lead readers to believe that the ship lost 10% of its crew to pregnancy. Nothing could be further from the truth. Thirty-six females (8%) of 450 women onboard during the deployment^{*} conceived during the seven-and-one-half month deployment. Women comprised approximately 30% of the crew. Of those 36, 14 were pregnant prior to deployment or transferred to the ship pregnant, leaving 22 who actually conceived during the deployment (5% of females, 1.8% of the

^{*}This figure includes those who reported following the ship's departure from homeport.

crew).⁵ These figures coincide with previously stated figures for annual pregnancy rates and equate to 13% for 36 pregnancies or 8% for 22 pregnancies. This incident is cited to again emphasize the usefulness of clear data concerning gender issues and the detriment of poor or absent data. The Navy should take from this war the need for continuous data collection concerning "hot" issues.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

The gender issues addressed in this work do not negatively impact fleet readiness, even if the number of women increases to one quarter of the force. However, the end of combat exclusion does not signal the end of gender issues for the United States Navy. Although, as General Jean Holm states, combat exclusion was "the final barrier,"¹ its removal does not solve gender problems, as the Coast Guard experience has shown.

As all Navy platforms become available to women, the numbers of women can and should grow. No special effort, but equal effort should be applied in recruiting men and women.^{*} Women should continue to be encouraged to select nontraditional ratings in percentages close to their male counterparts. Increased remedial training in areas such as mechanical comprehension and automobile and shop information should be provided for qualified women^{**} because low test scores in these areas may be due to lack of experience rather than lack of ability or desire.

^{*}Keep in mind that women in the Navy remain a minority and should therefore be given effort equal to that given other minority males.

^{**}Those women with high ASVAB scores overall.

Pregnancy, which is a major cause of women's attrition during the first term of enlistment, should be the largest focal area. Despite the publicity and perceptions surrounding this subject, the percentages are low enough, even if significantly more women join the service, that pregnancies will not effect overall fleet readiness. However, pregnancy will continue to be an area which causes women to struggle for acceptance as part of the Navy team. Onboard ships, the restrictions placed upon women while pregnant and their removal at the 20th week of pregnancy have a negative impact on individual workcenters and therefore create resentment.

Policy improvements should be developed by those who have first hand experience in dealing with the difficulties posed by shipboard pregnancies. Commanding Officers, Executive Officers and Command Master Chiefs who have served onboard mixed gender ships should be the sounding board for policy changes as well as the reservoir for innovative ideas.

Shipboard pregnancies should be discouraged. With a shrinking force, operational tempos may increase, making the presence of pregnant women onboard ships even less desirable. This is a training and leadership issue. Focused family planning and inspirational role models can assist in encouraging men and women to prevent pregnancies until they are assigned ashore. In addition, availability and access to birth control is critical.² Statistics must be monitored in order to measure the effectiveness of Navy efforts.

Single parenthood does not pose a fleet readiness problem. Single parents, in most cases, handle the balance between work and family as well as dual parents do. They are an asset, not a liability. Therefore, despite data which reflects women are single parents at five times the rate of men, increases in women's percentages and therefore numbers of single parents would not be detrimental to the fleet.

Because there are many male single parents, this is not a gender issue, but a quality of life issue. Although the Navy's policy of equal treatment for single parents in assignments is correct, single parents do have special needs, particularly those who are young sailors onboard ships. Again, family planning, sex education and better use of the services provided by the Family Services Centers could aid in reducing the numbers of single parents. In addition, availability of child care is particularly critical for single parents and should remain an area of concern for Navy quality of life programs.³

Aboard no Navy ship with a mixed gender crew has there been any reported incident in which the lack of physical strength of women has interfered with the ability of the ship to accomplish its mission. However, Title 10, as amended, provides the opportunity to develop gender neutral standards if they are found necessary. This should accommodate concerns due to women's physiology.

Data indicates that sexual harassment occurs in such small percentages that it should not impact fleet readiness, but the ripple effect of harassment is so far reaching that efforts toward elimination must continue. The Navy has developed effective programs for combatting sexual harassment, as they did for racial discrimination and drug abuse. In addition, the opportunity for women to serve in combat roles may cause a decrease in sexual harassment, but there is, as of yet, no evidence.' Given time, the Navy's Sexual Assault/Sexual Harassment (SASH) database, in conjunction with leadership support, training and resources, should indicate success.

The methods the Navy is using to combat sexual harassment should be used as a model for decreasing the incidence of fraternization. There is no question that fraternization is detrimental to the integrity of the chain of command and to the morale of any ship. Onboard ships, tight quarters and continuous contact between all members of the crew exacerbate any problem which exists. Statistical data has not been gathered, but should be, in order to determine trends in enforcement and to alert commands of Navy interest. Complaints continue, as they have concerning sexual harassment, that the policy is ambiguous. More effective training and knowledgeable resources are needed to ensure personnel enforce the Navy's policy.

Combatant ships preparing for mixed gender crews would benefit from the experience of those who have been onboard mixed gender ships. Experienced staff members from groups and squadrons which presently have mixed gender ships should communicate first hand any problems with implementing Navy policies and other difficulties integrating women. In this way, combatant ships will conduct smoother transitions.

The foundation of improved integration of women is measurement and dissemination of accurate data. The value of Total Quality Leadership is demonstrated by this work. Data was difficult to find, sometimes absent, but extremely useful in determining results as well as areas in need of further study. As Dr. Deming states, for any problem, "the first step is to get data."⁵ While data gathering and analysis can be expensive, connectivity of computers can decrease those costs and provide timely benefits. Insufficient data from the Coast Guard and the Gulf War reflect the need to track data in order to monitor issues, determine the need for policy change, and realize results.

Gender issue data should be consolidated at a single Navy source. Although most gender issues involve both men and women, it is important that one source have the ability to easily disseminate information which will clear misperceptions. A single office to hold consolidated data would not only be an invaluable resource, but would also

provide internal awareness of areas which require further study, as well as increased (or decreased) Navy attention.

Gender issues cited in this report can be improved through training, leadership, and quality of life initiatives, which will benefit all Navy personnel. Women's increased presence at sea will not negatively impact fleet readiness, but simply level the playing field for men and women in the United States Navy.

APPENDIX A

U.S. NAVY WOMEN'S SHIPBOARD OPPORTUNITIES

The following table delineates the growth in shipboard opportunities for women, both officer and enlisted, since the 1978 Supreme Court ruling which declared women's exclusion from Navy ship's unconstitutional.

TABLE A-1

U.S. NAVY WOMEN'S SHIPBOARD OPPORTUNITIES^a

YEAR	NO. OF SHIPS	NO. OF WOMEN AT SEA	PERCENT OF WOMEN AT SEA	PERCENT OF ALL NAVY	ADDITIONAL SHIP TYPES
1979	4	396	1.6	0.1	AD,AR,AS ^b
1981	16	1,403	4.1		-
1983	-	2,210	5.4	.5	-
1985	-	4,443	9.9	.9	.3
1987	37	5,054	10.8	1.0	AE,AFS,AO,ATF,ATS
1989	48	6,549	12.4	1.3	-
1991	70	9,500	19.8	1.9	FFT
1993	64	8,964	20.4	2.0	AOE,LCC,AGF, AFLOAT STAFFS
1994+	461 ^c	-	-	-	COMBATANTS (CV,DD,FF,CG,ETC.)

^aofficer and enlisted

^badditional ship types included ARS,ASR,AGDS,ARD,AVT,TAGS

^ctotal inventory, including submarines

Source: Facsimile from Bureau of Naval Personnel (PERS-00W), Washington, D.C., 8 February 1994; Interview with LCDR Cathy Armstrong, COMLOGGRU2, 17 December 1993; An Update Report on the Progress of Women in the Navy, Washington, D.C., 1990, p. I-24.

APPENDIX B

SEA INTENSIVE VS. SHORE INTENSIVE RATINGS

Since 1989, U.S. Navy Recruiting Command has made a concerted effort to increase the numbers of women accessed into nontraditional ratings, with the goal of 60% nontraditional to 40% traditional. Table II-2 reflects the results.

The 1990 Women's Study Group, which analyzed and assessed women's issues and updated a similar study from 1987, delineated ratings according to whether they were sea or shore intensive. This assessment is subject to change, but is utilized to determine the distribution of women in traditional (shore intensive) and nontraditional (sea intensive) ratings. Table B-1 lists the study group's determinations.

TABLE B-1

U.S. NAVY ENLISTED RATINGS

SHORE INTENSIVE RATINGS

ADMINISTRATION:	CTA	CRYPTOLOGICAL TECHNICIAN (ADMINISTRATIVE)
	CTI	CRYPTOLOGICAL TECHNICIAN (INTERPRETIVE)
	CTM	CRYPTOLOGICAL TECHNICIAN (MAINTENANCE)
	CTO	CRYPTOLOGICAL TECHNICIAN (COMMUNICATIONS)
	CTR	CRYPTOLOGICAL TECHNICIAN (COLLECTION)
	CTT	CRYPTOLOGICAL TECHNICIAN (TECHNICAL)
	DK	DISBURSING CLERK
	DP	DATA PROCESSING TECHNICIAN
	IS	INTELLIGENCE SPECIALIST
	JO	JOURNALIST
	LN	LEGALMAN
	MS	MESS MANAGEMENT SPECIALIST
	NC	NAVY COUNSELOR
	PC	POSTAL CLERK
	PN	PERSONNELMAN
	RM	RADIOMAN
	RP	RELIGIOUS PROGRAM SPECIALIST
	SH	SHIP'S SERVICEMAN

SHORE INTENSIVE RATINGS (con't)

ADMINISTRATION:	SK YN	STOREKEEPER YEOMAN
AVIATION:	AK AZ	AVIATION STOREKEEPER AVIATION MAINTENANCE ADMINISTRATION
MEDICAL/DENTAL:	HM DT	HOSPITAL CORPSMAN DENTAL TECHNICIAN
MISCELLANEOUS:	MU	MUSICIAN

SEA INTENSIVE RATINGS

AVIATION:	AB ABE ABF ABH AC AD AE AF AG AM AME AMH AMS AO AQ AS AT AV AW AX PH PR	AVIATION BOATSWAIN'S MATE AVIATION BOATSWAIN'S MATE (LAUNCHING AND RECOVERY EQUIPMENT) AVIATION BOATSWAIN'S MATE (FUELS) AVIATION BOATSWAIN'S MATE (AIRCRAFT HANDLING) AIR TRAFFIC CONTROLLER AVIATION MACHINIST'S MATE AVIATION ELECTRICIAN'S MATE AIRCRAFT MAINTENANCEMAN AEROGRAPHER'S MATE AVIATION STRUCTURAL MECHANIC AVIATION STRUCTURAL MECHANIC (SAFETY EQUIPMENT) AVIATION STRUCTURAL MECHANIC (HYDRAULICS) AVIATION STRUCTURAL MECHANIC (STRUCTURES) AVIATION ORDNANCEMAN AVIATION FIRE CONTROL TECHNICIAN AVIATION SUPPORT EQUIPMENT TECHNICIAN AVIATION ELECTRONICS TECHNICIAN AVIONICS TECHNICIAN AVIATION ANTISUBMARINE WARFARE OPERATOR AVIATION ANTISUBMARINE WARFARE TECHNICIAN PHOTOGRAPHER'S MATE AIRCREW SURVIVAL EQUIPMENTMAN
CONSTRUCTION:	BU CE CM CU EA EO EQ SW UC UT	BUILDER CONSTRUCTION ELECTRICIAN CONSTRUCTION MECHANIC CONSTRUCTIONMAN ENGINEERING AID EQUIPMENT OPERATOR EQUIPMENTMAN STEELWORKER UTILITIES CONSTRUCTIONMAN UTILITIESMAN
DECK:	BM EW MA OS OT OTA OTM QM SM STG STS	BOATSWAIN'S MATE ELECTRONICS WARFARE TECHNICIAN MASTER-AT-ARMS OPERATIONS SPECIALIST OCEAN SYSTEMS TECHNICIAN OCEAN SYSTEMS TECHNICIAN (ANALYST) OCEAN SYSTEMS TECHNICIAN (MAINTAINER) QUARTERMASTER SIGNALMAN SONAR TECHNICIAN (SURFACE) SONAR TECHNICIAN (SUBMARINE)*
ELECTRONICS:	DS ET IM QM	DATA SYSTEMS TECHNICIAN ELECTRONICS TECHNICIAN INSTRUMENTMAN OPTICMAN
ENGINEERING:	BT DC EM EN GS GSE	BOILER TECHNICIAN DAMAGE CONTROLMAN ELECTRICIAN'S MATE ENGINEMAN GAS TURBINE SYSTEM TECHNICIAN GAS TURBINE SYSTEM TECHNICIAN (ELECTRICAL)

SEA INTENSIVE RATINGS (con't)

	GSM	GAS TURBINE SYSTEM TECHNICIAN (MECHANICAL)
	HT	HULL MAINTENANCE TECHNICIAN
	IC	INTERIOR COMMUNICATIONS ELECTRICIAN
	ML	MOLDER
	MM	MACHINIST'S MATE
	MR	MACHINERY REPAIRMAN
	PM	PATTERNMAKER
MISCELLANEOUS:	DM	ILLUSTRATOR DRAFTSMAN
	LI	LITHOGRAPHER
ORDNANCE:	FC	FIRE CONTROLMAN
	FT	FIRE CONTROL TECHNICIAN*
	FTB	FIRE CONTROL TECHNICIAN (BALLISTIC MISSILE FIRE CONTROL)*
	FTG	FIRE CONTROL TECHNICIAN (GUN FIRE CONTROL)
	GM	GUNNER'S MATE
	GMG	GUNNER'S MATE (GUNS)
	GMM	GUNNER'S MATE (MISSILES)
	MN	MINEMAN
	MT	MISSILE TECHNICIAN*
	TM	TORPEDOMAN'S MATE
	WT	WEAPON'S TECHNICIAN

*Submarine ratings which remain closed to women.

Source: U.S. Navy, Chief of Naval Operations, An Update Report on Progress of Women in the Navy, Washington, D.C., 1990, pp. I-D-1-4.

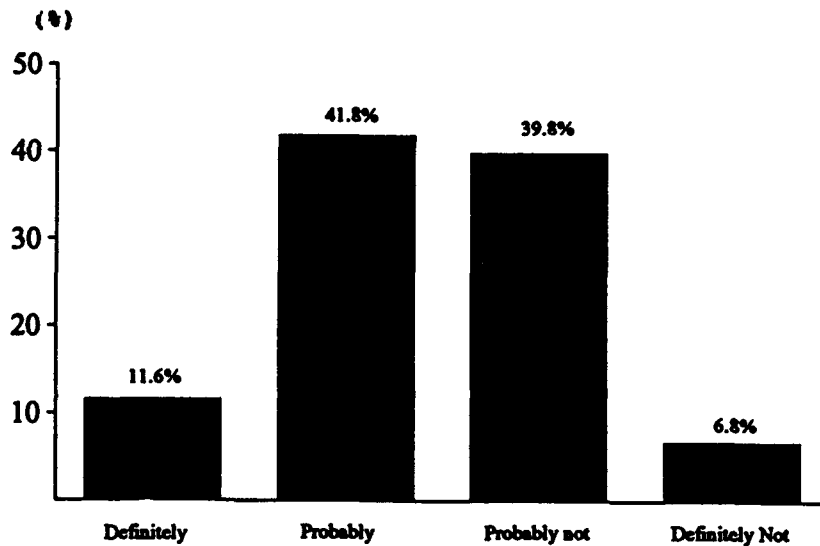
APPENDIX C

YOUTH ATTITUDE TRACKING STUDY (YATS)

Navy Recruiting Command uses YATS to determine improved methods for recruiting and comparative difficulties in meeting their accession goals. The following tables reflect results of the 1993 YATS survey of female new recruits conducted at the Recruit Training Center, Orlando, Florida between 29 June and 15 July 1993.

FIGURE C-1

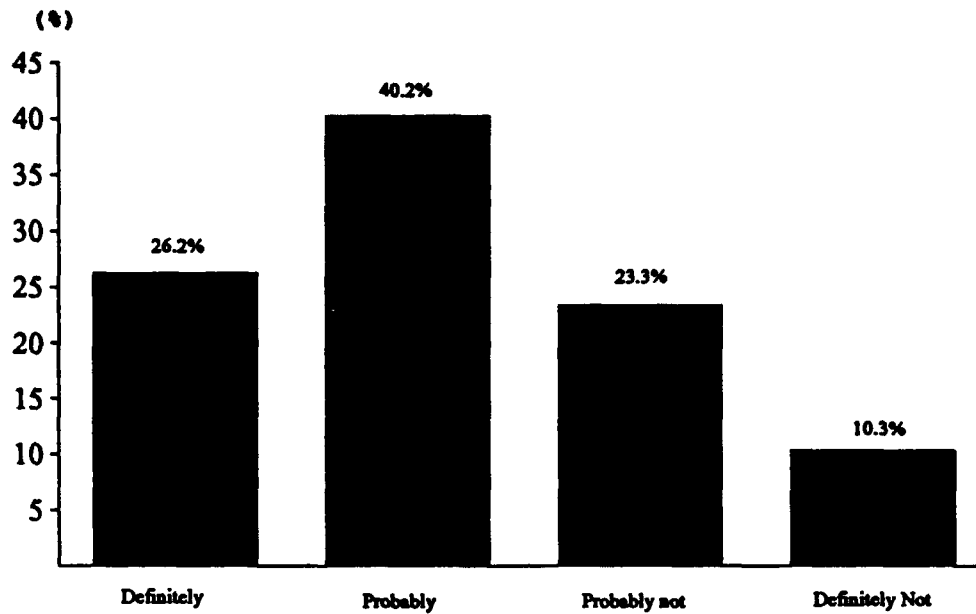
HOW LIKELY IS IT THAT YOU WILL GO TO SEA
DURING YOUR FIRST ENLISTMENT



Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Female New Recruit Survey," Brief, Washington, D.C., August 1993.

FIGURE C-2

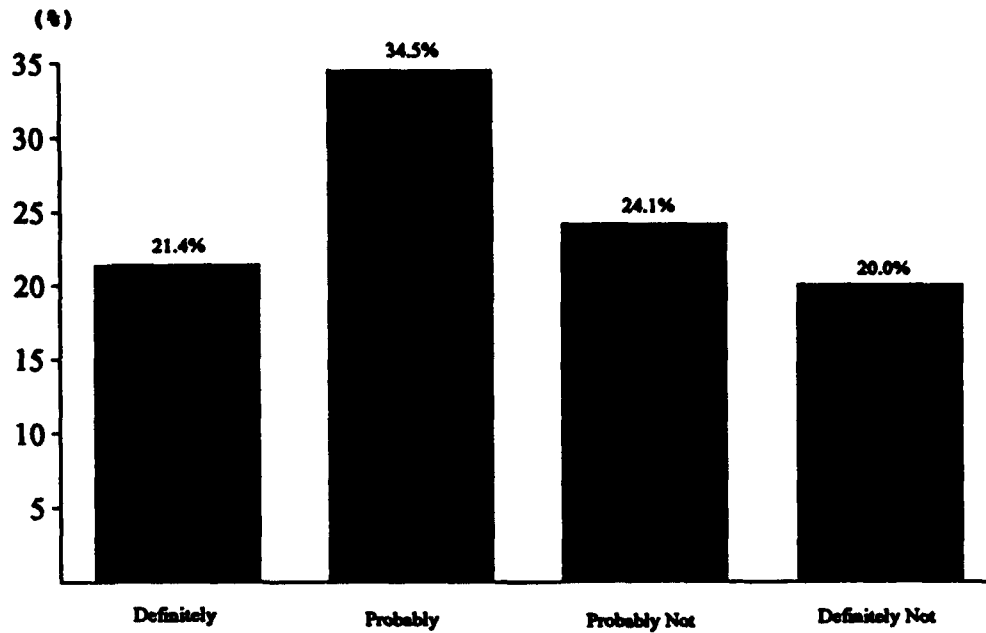
**HOW INTERESTED WOULD YOU BE IN WORKING IN
IN A JOB THAT REQUIRES YOU TO GO TO SEA?**



Source: U.S. Naval Recruiting Command, "Female New Recruit Survey," Brief, Washington, D.C., August 1993.

FIGURE C-3

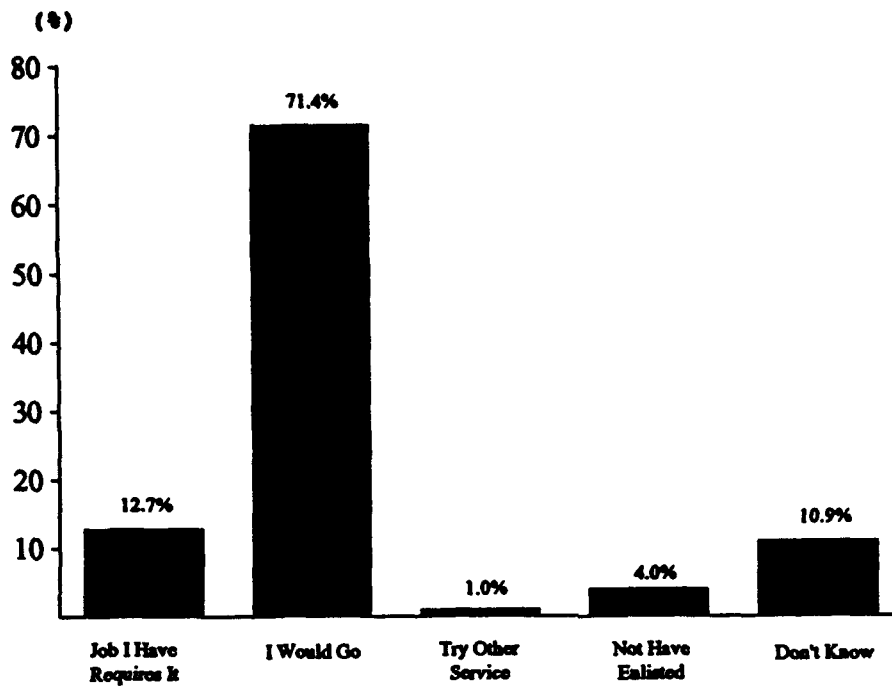
**HOW INTERESTED WOULD YOU BE IN
WORKING IN A JOB THAT REQUIRES YOU
TO WORK ONBOARD A COMBAT SHIP?**



Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Female New Recruit Survey," Brief.

FIGURE C-4

**IF YOU WERE REQUIRED TO GO TO SEA DURING
YOUR FIRST ENLISTMENT, WHAT WOULD YOU DO?**



Source: U.S. Navy Recruiting Command, "Female New Recruit Survey," Brief.

APPENDIX D

RATING CATEGORIES FOR THE CENTER OF NAVAL ANALYSES ATTRITION STUDY

In 1992, the Center for Naval Analyses (CNA) published an analysis of women's survival rates during their first year and also their first term of service. The study divided women's ratings into three categories: shore intensive, sea intensive/high percent female and sea intensive/low percent female. Survival rates were compared to men in similar ratings to determine whether attrition is greater or less depending on the types of ratings selected. Chapter II discusses the results of the study. The table below defines the ratings which were included in the study. Only ratings in which a statistically significant number of women were employed were used.

TABLE D-1

CNA ATTRITION STUDY CATEGORIES^a

<u>SHORE^b</u> <u>INTENSIVE</u>	<u>SEA INTENSIVE/</u> <u>HIGH PERCENT FEMALE</u>	<u>SEA INTENSIVE/</u> <u>LOW PERCENT FEMALE</u>
AK	AC	AB
AZ	AD	AM
CA	AE	AO
DK	AG	AS
DP	AT	BT
DT	AX	BU
HM	DS	CE
IS	EM	CM
JO	EN	DC

**SHORE
INTENSIVE**

MS
PC
RP
SH
SK
YN

**SEA INTENSIVE/
HIGH PERCENT FEMALE**

HT
IC
MR
OM
OT
PH
PM
PR
QM
SM
TM
WT

**SEA INTENSIVE/
LOW PERCENT FEMALE**

EO
MM
UT

*See Appendix B for definitions of rating acronyms.

*LN, MU, NC omitted due to lack of data.

Source: Donna P. McDonald and Joyce S. McMahon, Survival Patterns for First Term Navy Women, Center for Naval Analyses, Virginia, December 1992, pp. 7-9.

APPENDIX E

EXCERPTS FROM OPNAVINST 6000.1A

"MANAGEMENT OF PREGNANT SERVICEWOMEN"

The following is extracted from the Navy instruction concerning the treatment of pregnant servicewomen and indicates the restrictions placed on the individual and her command due to pregnancy, specifically in a shipboard environment:

Enclosure (1), paragraph 101.d:

"General Limitations. After confirmation of pregnancy, a pregnant servicewoman:

(1) Shall be exempt from:

(a) The regular physical training (PT) program of her unit. However, she shall be counselled and encouraged to participate in an...exercise program...

(b) Physical readiness testing (PRT) during pregnancy...

(c) Exposure to chemical or toxic agents and/or environmental hazards that are determined unsafe by the cognizant occupational health professional or the health care provider.

(d) Standing at parade rest or attention for longer than 15 minutes.

(e) All routine immunizations except tetanus-diphtheria unless clinically indicated.

(f) Participation in weapons training, swimming qualifications, drown-proofing, and any other physical training requirements that may affect the health of the servicewoman and/or the fetus."

Enclosure (1), paragraph 102.c:

"Restrictions. These fall into four categories:

(1) Medical. High blood pressure, bleeding, multiple pregnancy, or other indications as identified by the servicewoman's health care provider.

(2) Environmental. Exposure to known toxins or hazardous conditions as determined by the appropriate occupational health professional.

(3) Ergonomic. Instances where there may be no obvious medical contradictions but where the individual's physical configuration and/or abilities preclude her from continuing with specific activities (such as lying in a prone position for weapons qualifications, diving duty, certain duty aboard ships, etc.) or where nausea or fatiguability would be hazardous to the servicewoman, the unborn child, and other servicemembers of the unit (e.g., air controller duties).

(4) Other. Areas of questionably harmful effects such as nuclear, biological, and chemical (NBC) training, a regular unit physical training program, certain unit qualification tests or hands-on elements of skills qualification tests, potentially harmful environmental conditions, etc."

Enclosure (1), paragraph 103.b.(2):

"(2) Shipboard

(a) The commanding officer in consultation with the health care provider and the appropriate occupational health professional shall decide whether the individual may safely continue in her shipboard assigned duties. This decision will be based on the servicewoman's condition and environmental toxins or hazards within the individual's workplace.

(b) A pregnant servicewoman shall not remain aboard ship if the time for medical evacuation of the member to a treatment facility capable of evaluating and stabilizing obstetric emergencies is greater than six hours.

(c) For enlisted servicewomen, commanding officers shall ensure that the enlisted availability report includes the date the pregnant servicewoman will be in her 20th week of pregnancy, and in the case of deploying units, the date of deployment. The servicewoman shall not remain on board beyond her 20th week of pregnancy.

(d) Shipboard assignments are deferred up to a period of four months following delivery unless the servicewoman volunteers (waivers) for an earlier rotation. This time is meant to allow the delivered servicewoman time to regain her physical strength and stamina in order to perform the duties of her rate/rank. This does not preclude the stated six month waiver from physical readiness test participation, per paragraph 101.d.(1)(b)."

APPENDIX F

QUESTIONS FROM SHIP VISITS, DECEMBER 1993

During the week of 13 December 1993, three Norfolk based ships were visited. Executive Officers and Command Master Chiefs were asked the following questions (and others) during informal discussions, on the condition of anonymity. The purpose was to gain the operators' perspective on gender issues.

Executive Officers (when applicable):

- (1) If a woman becomes pregnant, what is the procedure? Who, if anyone, takes charge? Problems?
- (2) Are any proactive steps taken to eliminate fraternization?
- (3) Do you feel well informed concerning women's policies?
- (4) Are you aware of the Sexual Assault/Sexual Harassment database? Sexual harassment advice line?
- (5) Have you experienced any problems due to women's strength?
- (6) Are women overrepresented in traditional rates? Is there a perception that they are?
- (7) Is there any emphasis on women's issues during NR&R workshops?
- (8) Do you have problems with Dependent Care Certificates?
- (9) What are your pregnancy rates? Perceptions? Single parenthood?
- (10) Have you experienced any standards which must be adjusted in order to accommodate women?

(11) Do you expect or have you experienced resistance to women?

(12) When you become involved with a gender issue who, if anyone, do you turn to?

(13) Did you receive training on gender issues at PXO school? Should you?

Command Master Chiefs (when applicable):

(1) Do you have a senior enlisted female who assists you with gender issues? Should you?

(2) Did you receive training on gender issues at the Senior Enlisted Academy/Command Master Chief course? Should you?

(3) If a woman becomes pregnant, what is the procedure? Who, if anyone, takes charge? Problems?

(4) Do you take any proactive steps to eliminate fraternization?

(5) Do you feel well informed concerning women's policies?

(6) Are you aware of the Sexual Assault/Sexual Harassment database? Sexual harassment advice line?

(7) Have you experienced any problems due to women's strength?

(8) Are women overrepresented in traditional rates? Is there a perception that they are?

(9) Is there any emphasis on women's issues during NR&R workshops?

(10) Do you have problems with Dependent Care Certificates?

(11) What are your pregnancy rates? Perceptions? Single parenthood?

(12) Have you experienced any standards which must be adjusted in order to accommodate women?

(13) Do you expect or have you experienced resistance to women?

APPENDIX G

U.S. COAST GUARD FEMALE RATING DISTRIBUTION

The following chart lists numbers of women in each of the Coast Guard's 24 ratings. Non-rated personnel are not included so the total is less than the Coast Guard inventory of women. The numbers reflect the concentration of women in a small number of traditional ratings.

TABLE G-1

U.S. COAST GUARD FEMALE RATING DISTRIBUTION (SEPTEMBER 1991)

<u>RATING CATEGORY</u>	<u>NO. OF WOMEN</u>
Aviation	
AD	11
AE	13
AM	3
ASM	2
AT	14
Deck	
BM	89
GM	9
FT	5
ST	6
Operations	
QM	52
RM*	203
RD	12
MST	45
ET	49
TT	4
Engineering	
MK	48
DC	10
EM	22

<u>RATING CATEGORY</u>	<u>NO. OF WOMEN</u>
Supply	
YN ^a	622
SK ^a	258
SS ^a	114
HS ^a	122
Other	
PA	25
MU	9
<hr/>	
TOTAL	1,747

^aShore intensive ratings selected; total women in these ratings is 1,319, 75.5% of total rated women in the Coast Guard.

Source: F.M. Chliszczyk, USCG, "Coast Guard Enlisted Female Assignment Plan FY92-94," U.S. Coast Guard, Washington, D.C., November 1991, p. II-12.

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7. Ebbert and Hall, p. 216.
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